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A GRAMMAR OF LANDSMAAL

INTRODUCTION

THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF LANDSMAAL

Among the linguistic revivals of modern times the Landsmaal movement in Norway stands unique. In Greece and in Ireland the attempt is to rejuvenate a language which has been in a previous age the accepted speech and literary medium of the nation as a whole; in Norway, however, the movement is not for the resuscitation of Old Norse in its pristine purity, but for the supplanting of the hitherto accepted literary language by one artificially constructed out of existing Norwegian dialects.

These dialects obtain over the whole country, and are the regular daily speech of a large number of the people. They are usually divided into three groups—Northern, Western, and Eastern—and, as they are direct lineal descendants of Old Norse, those who write in Landsmaal¹ and supporters of it in general, claim that it may be taken as a fair representative of what present-day Norwegian would have been, had the language pursued its own development independent of Danish influence. As the western dialects contain the purest elements and those in most general use, they have been drawn from most extensively in the creation of Landsmaal.

The purpose kept in view in the construction of this language has been to provide a literary medium which may be readily adopted by the various sections of the dialect-speaking population, and which, by being thoroughly and distinctively Norwegian, shall be more expressive of the national life and character than Riksmaal,² which is the present literary language and that spoken by the educated classes as well as many of the peasantry.

Historically Landsmaal is the linguistic outcome partly of the Romantic movement, but much more of the strong sense of patriotism and of national independence, so marked a feature of the Norwegian people, which received a fresh and vigorous

¹ The name is sometimes loosely applied to the literary form of any dialect, but the correct sense is as indicated.

² A term coined by Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson as an offset to the national claim implied in the name Landsmaal. It has now practically supplanted the term Dansk-Norsk (Dano-Norwegian).

impetus on the dissolution of the Union with Denmark in 1814. For three centuries previous to that event Danish had been the official and literary language of Norway, employed in the law courts, taught in the schools, preached from the pulpits, and spoken and written by the educated classes throughout the whole land. The literature of the country, published for the most part in Copenhagen, was likewise in Danish, and, indeed, it is to an author of Norwegian origin—Ludvig Holberg (1684-1754)—that Danish, in Denmark itself, mainly owed its revival and purification during the first half of the eighteenth century. An additional factor in the predominance of Danish was the lack, up to 1811, of a Norwegian university; so that all government positions that were open only to graduates were filled by alumni of the University of Copenhagen.

During these centuries of Danish linguistic supremacy (a supremacy, be it noted, not of compulsion but of necessity, since literary Norse, owing to the great plague and other calamities in the fourteenth century, had ceased to exist), the dialects still held their own in the country districts among the peasants; and although practically unproductive in a literary way, they had a marked effect on the spoken language, to a limited extent on the vocabulary, but to so great a degree on the pronunciation, particularly in the retention of the Norwegian accents and in the rejection of the Danish "glottal catch," that the Danish spoken in Norway took on a national colouring so distinctive as to justify the name *Dansk-Norsk*. It is to these dialects, moreover, that we owe the preservation, through oral tradition, of a rich store of folk-songs and fairy-tales, now cherished as being among the most characteristic of the nation's literary treasures.³

³ Petter Dass (1647-1708) makes use of dialectal forms in many of his poems; but it is to Ole Camstrup that the honour belongs of writing one of the first poems in a modern Norwegian dialect, namely a wedding-song composed in the Hardanger dialect in 1729. His example was followed five years later by Nils Heyberg of Sogn in his wedding-song "Bonden i Brydlupsgaren." In the latter half of the eighteenth century Edward Storm and Thomas Stockfleth both of the Gudbrandsdal, wrote much in their dialect. The first work of interest from the more purely scientific standpoint was Christen Jensøn's—*Den norske Dictionarium eller Glosebog, udi hvilken indeholdis mange norske Glose oc daglige Tale . . .*," which appeared in 1646. It was followed by Erik Pontoppidan's *Glossarium Norvagicum* in 1749, and by the more serious and complete work of Laurents Hallager *Norsk Ordsamling* in 1802. A posthu-

With the dissolution of the Union there begins a new era in the development of Norwegian. The revived sense of national independence soon found expression not only in the political and social life of the nation, but also in literary activity. Foremost among the patriotic writers of the time was the poet Henrik Wergeland (1808-1845), and it is to him that we owe the first definite attempt to introduce into the language a large number of distinctively Norwegian words which had hitherto been confined to dialectal use, an innovation which he defends with characteristic energy, on both patriotic and poetic grounds, in his essay *Om norsk Sprogreformation* (1835). It is to Wergeland, too, that we owe one of the earliest endeavours to issue folk-songs in their original dialect, namely *Langeleiken; en Krands af Digtinger i Dølemaal* (1842). This movement to strengthen the Norse element in Dano-Norwegian soon found warm allies in the Romantic writers, foremost among whom were Jørgen Moe (1813-1881), P. C. Asbjørnson (1812-1885) and M. B. Landstad (1802-1880). In 1840 Moe published, in their dialect form, a collection of folk-songs *Samling af Sange, Folkeviser og Stev i norske Almuedialekter*. Two years later, he, in collaboration with Asbjørnson, issued the first collection of *Norske Folkeeventyr*, fairy tales which up till then had lived only by oral tradition in dialect form. To ensure that these tales should lose as little as possible of their local colour and raciness, the authors, in rendering them into the literary language of the day, made free use of numerous peculiarly Norse forms, words and expressions, many of which were thus employed for the first time in print, and most, if not all, of which have since remained as part and parcel of modern Norwegian. In 1852-1853 Landstad brought out his *Norske Folkeviser*, a representative and scholarly collection of folk-songs in various dialects, but before their appearance the study of Norwegian dialects had undergone a complete change, a change so sweeping as to result in the creation of a new Norse language.

The originator of this linguistic revolution was Ivar Aasen (1813-1896), a philological genius, who published *Det norske Folkesprogs*

mous but unfinished essay on the Hardanger dialect—*Prøve paa hvorvidt det gamle norske Sprog endnu er til udi det Hardangerske Bonde-maal*—by Marcus Schnabel was published in 1784.

Grammatik in 1848 and his *Ordbog over det norske Folkesprog*⁴ in 1850, works which embody the first really comprehensive and scientific study of the various Norse dialects. As the outcome of his researches Aasen was the first to demonstrate that these dialects were not, as many had previously supposed, corrupt variants of literary Dano-Norwegian, but direct descendants of Old Norse which had followed a development of their own. But Aasen went much further than this; he maintained that beneath the differences of these dialects there lies a unity so perfect as to constitute the basis of a language which would correspond to the written language of other countries.⁵ To him the current Dano-Norwegian had no right to be called Norwegian so long as its forms and basis were Danish, while all attempts to render the language more distinctively Norwegian by the infusion of purely Norse elements was labour in vain. He declared that the only solution was the creation, from the dialects, of a language which in form, structure and vocabulary should be strictly and completely Norse, and which in time might supplant Dano-Norwegian and become the language of the whole nation.⁶ To the task of constructing such a language he set himself with all his enthusiasm and genius, and the fruit of his toil was that form of Landsmaal which still goes by his name, but which differs from other forms in its biased adherence to the western dialects, and in its over-zealous retention of obsolete Norse forms.

⁴ A second and much revised edition of the Grammar appeared in 1864 under the simple title *Norsk Grammatik*, a title retained by all subsequent issues. The dictionary was republished in a second edition in 1873 under the title *Norsk Ordbog med dansk Forklaring*, and in this issue the words appear in their normal constructed form.

⁵ "—At de [norske Dialekter] ikke staae i samme Stilling som de svenske og danske, at de ikke staae som Afvigelser eller Varianter omkring et Bogmaal, som allerede indeholder deres fælles Grundlag; men at de derimod i sig selv indeholde det Grundlag, som svarer til Bogmaalet i de andre Lande." Aasen.

⁶ "At optage adskillige norske Ord i Dansken kan vistnok være til Nytte i Skrifter for Almuen, . . . men derved er dog at mærke at dette ikke er nogen Opreisning for det norske Maal, og at Bogmaalet ikke derved faar nogen Ret til at kaldes norsk, saa længe som Form og Grundlag i det hele er dansk." Aasen. *Norsk Grammatik*. p. 10.

"—Naar man vil sammenligne Folkets Talebrug med Gammel Norsk, . . . kommer man netop ind paa en selvstændig Sprogform, som ikke er bleven Folket paatvungen udenfra, men som netop tilhører Folket fra gammle Tider.

The scientific significance of Aasen's Landsmaal met with quick recognition, but its practical value as a linguistic medium cannot be said to have been of any importance until 1858, when the peasant-born journalist and politician Aasmund Vinje (1819-1870) adopted it, though not without very considerable variations, in his weekly journal—*Dølen*—a political, social and literary paper of wide influence. Following Vinje's lead, but adhering more strictly to Aasen's standard, came Henrik Krohn (1826-1879) and Kristofer Janson (1841-), both of Bergen, the former as founder and editor of the weekly *Ferdammenen*, and the latter as a Landsmaal poet and story-teller. Gradually the new language gained ground; in 1867, Christopher Bruun, a pastor in the Norwegian Church, established in the Gudbrandsdal a school for adult peasants where, for the first time, instruction was given in Landsmaal, and in the year following "Det norske Samlag," an association of Landsmaal supporters, was founded, which, by its publishing activity, endeavoured to make the new language an influence for culture among the dialect-speaking population, as well as to render it popular as an expression of Norse nationality.

But Aasen's Landsmaal needed much modification before it could hope to become widely accepted, and that it received this modification is largely due to the work of O. J. Fjørtoft (1847-1878) and O. J. Høyem (1830-), both of whom contended that Landsmaal should be representative of all the Norwegian dialects, the eastern and the northern as well as the western, on which latter Aasen had built almost exclusively, and that for practical purposes the preservation of Old Norse forms, though of unquestioned philological value, was of much less importance than to make the language, particularly in its constructions, resemble as closely as possible the living speech of the majority of the dialect-speaking people. Against bitter opposition from the men of Aasen's school, Fjørtoft in his paper *Fram* (1871-1873) vindicated his contention, and won over to his side the greatest

Dette Sprog kunde gjerne være skriftlig dyrket og have et stort Forraad af Bøger; men det kan ogsaa indtil videre betragtes som et Almuesprog uden Bøger; og i hvert Fald er det alligevel dette, som er det rette norske Maal. Vi see ingen Grund til at ansee det som lavere end Svensk og Dansk;—vi indsee ikke, at det kunde være nogen Ære for Almuen at foragte dette Maal og ønske at ombytte det med noget andet." Aasen ut supra p. 11.

of all Landsmaal authors—Arne Garborg (1851-). This highly-gifted and original writer has been for many years the most redoubtable of Landsmaal defenders. To him the peasants are the Norwegian people, and their speech the only speech entitled to the name Norwegian, while the language of the towns and of the educated classes, the language as written by Wergeland and Welhaven, by Asbjørnson and Moe, by Ibsen and Bjørnson is not Norwegian but corrupt or “provincial Danish.” It is to him, moreover, that must be credited a new interpretation of Landsmaal as an attempt at a common spelling for the Norwegian dialects, an interpretation which has not been altogether welcomed by the strict upholders of Aasen’s program.⁷ In 1877 appeared his thoroughgoing defense of the new language—*Den nynorske Sprog- og Nationalitets-bevægelse*, and in the same year he commenced the issue of the paper *Fedraheimen*, a pronounced Landsmaal organ, which he continued to conduct till 1882. By this paper, but also much more by his poetic and other writings, notably *Forteljingar og Sogur*, *Ein Fritenkjar*, *Bondestudentar*, *Hjaa og Mor*, *Haugtussa*, Garborg has won for his cause a wider circle of readers than has been possible to any other writer; and more too than any other has he succeeded in making the new language not only popular among the peasantry, but also a living question in practical politics.

In the stormy field of Norwegian politics, Landsmaal has been identified with the party of the Left, and has steadily gained for itself increasing recognition from the Norwegian Parliament. As far back as 1874 a proposal was brought forward that Landsmaal should be made a subject of study in the teachers’ training colleges (Seminarier), a proposal which, though rejected by the Storting at the time, was subsequently, in 1889, ratified and put into force. Seeing that the training colleges supply the teachers for the Board Schools (Almueskolen) and are recruited mostly from among the peasantry, such a step did much to make these institutions vigorous propagating centers for the new tongue. It was in the same year, 1874, that teachers in the Board Schools were instructed to allow their pupils in the elementary classes to make use of their own dialect until they had acquired a sufficient knowledge of Riksmaal, and in teaching such pupils,

⁷ “Landsmaalet er: et Forsøg paa en fælles Skrivemaade for vore Dialekter.” Garborg. *Vor Sprogudvikling*, p. 20.

they were to employ as far as possible the dialect themselves.⁸ Four years later the Storting passed a resolution that pupils in the Board Schools, wherever feasible, should be taught in their own dialect, but that they should also be instructed to understand and write Riksmåal.⁹ A still more radical proposal was the motion, carried in the Storting in 1885, that the government should take the necessary steps to place Landsmaal on an equal footing with Riksmåal not only in the schools, but also as an official language;¹⁰ and so far as the schools are concerned this was carried into effect by the law of 1892, which authorised the school board in each district to decide whether the schoolbooks should be in Landsmaal or Riksmåal, and in which of these languages the pupils' written exercises should be composed; all pupils, however, were to be taught to read both languages.¹¹ To ensure the provision of suitable textbooks in Landsmaal the Storting has, since 1894, made a yearly grant to "Det norske Samlag" for their publication. In 1896 the government passed a law making the language a compulsory subject of study in the public and secondary schools (Middelskolen og Gymnasier), and that while all pupils were to show proficiency in writing Riksmåal, the usual written exercises might be rendered in either Riksmåal or Landsmaal, a standard form of which was authorised in 1901.¹² The Storting

⁸ "Lærerne maa navnlig i førstningen ikke blot tillade barnet at bruge sit eget maalføre, men maa ogsaa selv, for at forstaaes, saavidt mulig benytte sig af samme; efterhaanden opøves børnene i at forstaa og selv benytte det i bøgerne almindelig brugte sprog." *Skoleplan* of 1874.

⁹ "Undervisningen i Almueskolen bør søges saavidt mulig meddelt paa børnenes eget talesprog. Efterhaanden opøves de i at forstaa og skriftlig udtrykke sig i bogsproget." *Undervisningsplan for Landskolen* of 1878.

¹⁰ "Regjeringen anmodes om at træffe fornøden Forføjning til, at det norske Folkesprog som Skole- og officielt Sprog sidestilles med vort almindelige Skrift- og Bogsprog." *Resolution of the Storting*; 12th of May, 1885.

¹¹ "Skolestyret bestemmer om Skolens Læse- og Lærebøger skal være affattet paa Landsmaal eller i det almindelige Bogmaal, og i hvilket af disse Maal Elevernes skriftlige Arbejder i Almindelighed skal affattes. Dog skal Eleverne lære at læse begge Maal." Law of the 6th of July, 1892.

¹² (For Middelskolen.) "At Eleverne læser tydelig og udtryksfulkt saavel Landsmaal som det almindelige Bogmaal, kan gjøre Rede for udvalgte Stykker af Literaturen i begge Maal, samt med Orden og Tydelighed i sprogrigtig Form kan behandle en lettere Opgave." Law of the 26th of June, 1896.

(For Gymnasier). "De skriftlige Opgaver kan affattes saavel paa Landsmaalet som paa det almindelige Bogmaal. Dog skal Eleverne gives fornøden Øvelse i skriftlig Brug af det almindelige Bogmaal." Law of June 26th, 1896.

completed its work in this regard by the creation of a professorship in Landsmaal at the University of Christiania, a further consequence of which has been that all candidates for matriculation are now (1912) required to be able to read and write the language. Into the domain of the Church, Landsmaal has also entered, although here its advance has not been marked. With the assistance of a government grant a Landsmaal version of the New Testament was issued in 1882-89, but it was not until 1897 that the Landsmaal hymnbook of Professor Blix—*Nokre Salmar*—was first used in public service in a few parishes, although it had been authorised for Church use five years earlier. Services in Landsmaal are regularly held in a few parishes, but as legal compulsion stops short here, the number of Landsmaal preachers does not tend to increase. A triumph in yet another field, was the publication in 1894, of one of the Storting's laws exclusively in Landsmaal,¹³ a precedent which remains unique, although three years later a recommendation was passed that in future all laws should be issued in both languages, and that a Landsmaal translation of the chief existing laws should be prepared.¹⁴ This latter work has since been started, but as yet no effect has been given to the proposal that the drafts of all bills should be submitted in Landsmaal.

Landsmaal, or New Norse (Nynorsk) as its adherents sometimes style it, either in Aasen's or any subsequent form, was not, however, destined to carry all before it. Its earliest type was denounced by the upholders of Dano-Norwegian as academic, unpractical and retrograde. The learned historian and philologist, Professor P. A. Munch (1810-1863) declared that to raise Landsmaal to the status of the national speech, or even to rank it as on the same footing as Dano-Norwegian, would be to set at nought historical development and to degrade the nation's culture to the level of the 15th century, or at best to the same level as obtains among the peasantry. Opposition was intensified, and soon the linguistic question became a veritable battle-ground.

¹³ Law of 29th June, 1894:—*Um sams normallid fyr kongeriket Norig.*

¹⁴ "At lade lovtekster i kgl. proposisjoner til Love affatte saavel i Landsmaal som paa det almindelige Bogsprog, hvor saadant findes hensigtsmæssigt, og at forlægge Stortinget en Plan angaaende Udgivelse i Landsmaal av gjældende Love." Recommendation of the 12th of July, 1897.

Almost from the outset the combatants ranged themselves under two clearly defined parties,—the champions of New Norse, the majority of whose following was from among the peasantry, and the defenders of the established Dano-Norwegian, who had with them the great bulk of the educated classes and of those who lived in the towns. Both factions were at one in their desire to have a language distinctly and thoroughly representative of the Norwegian nationality, but differed in their view as to what was entitled to be regarded as national, and much more as to the form the language should take. The New Norse party, as we have seen, were root and branch men, and, forgetful of the originally common origin of both Danish and Norse, would have nothing in the language to remind them of their country's former connection with Denmark, a connection which, they felt, touched the national honour. Their ambition was to construct and establish a literary language built on the dialects, which as a pure type of Norse should in time supplant the current Dano-Norwegian. This radical claim the Riksmåls party countered with the retort that the towns also were Norwegian, and as representative of no small part of Norwegian life were also entitled to a voice in the settlement of what ought to be the national language. They contended that, while recognizing the literary and practical value of the dialects within their limits, the abandonment of Riksmåls, with its rich traditions and its tried efficiency as an instrument of culture, would be an irreparable loss to the nation. Further they pointed out that, though Riksmåls was based on Danish, it had undergone an historical development in Norway, and had become so stamped with Norwegian peculiarities as to differentiate it in a marked degree from current Danish. This differentiation they proposed to carry still further by altering its Danish orthography to express the Norwegian pronunciation, by effacing inflections that had fallen into disuse, and by the gradual introduction of such purely Norse words and constructions as might well be substituted for their foreign equivalents. This program was essentially a continuation and development of the movement set on foot by such writers as Wergeland and Asbjørnson, and has been to such an extent realized that modern literary Norwegian has grown so unlike its Danish original in form and vocabulary that glosses are now necessary in Norwegian books intended for circula-

tion in Denmark.¹⁵ In the front rank of those who have thus striven for the nationalization of Dano-Norwegian stands the grammarian and lexicographer Knud Knudsen (1812-1895), a prolific and vigorous writer, the chief of whose contributions to the controversy are: *Unorsk og norsk, eller fremmedords avløsning* (1879-81), *Det norske maalstræv* (1867), and *Haandbog i dansknorsk sprog-lære* (1856). A direct result of Knudsen's activity was the founding of the "Norsk Retskrivningssamlag," a society which has won official recognition of its efforts for the promotion of a simpler and more phonetic spelling, while a veritable triumph for him and his cause was the adoption of such a spelling by one of the greatest of Norwegian writers—Bjørnstjerne Bjørnson (1832-1910)—who also, in his later years, took a leading part in the foun-

¹⁵ Some of the principal changes in form, which have met with official approval, are:—1) the substitution in many words of the voiceless consonants *k, t, p*, for the Danish voiced *g, d, b*; e.g., *tilbake* for *tilbage*, *bruk* for *brug*, *flaate* for *flaade*, *bløt* for *blød*, *kjøp* for *kjøb*, *begripe* for *begribe*; 2) doubling of the consonants after a short vowel—(a) in Norwegian proper names; e.g., *Voss*, *Finn*, (b) in the neuter of adjectives ending in *t* preceded by a long vowel; e.g., *fett*, *litt*, *hvitt*, (c) in the past participle of strong and weak verbs the stems of which end in *t*; e.g., *brutt* from *bryte*, *forlatt* from *forlate*, (d) and in a number of purely Norse words to avoid confusion with others; e.g., *kjærr*, *legg*, *toll*; 3) the abbreviation of certain words; e.g., *bror* for *broder*, *far* for *fader*, *mor* for *moder*, *hode* for *hoved*, *klær* for *klæder*, *blir* for *bliver*, *gi* for *give*, *tat* for *taget*, *la* for *lagde*, *sa* for *sagde*; 4) the restoration of the Norse plural form in *r* for substantives of common gender, which in Danish have *e*; e.g., *baater*, *bjørner*, *busker*, *djævler*, *griser*, *hester*, *hatter*, *kniver*, *penger*, *skoger*, *smeder*, *vogner*; 5) dropping of the plural form in *e* in certain words of neuter gender; e.g., *berg*, *bord*, *fjeld*, *gulv*, *navn*, *speil*, *vand*.

So far as differences in vocabulary are concerned, Knud Knudsen in 1862 computed that there were about four thousand words in Molbech's Danish dictionary which seldom or never occur in Norwegian, and indicated at least one thousand one hundred Norse words which in the previous fifty years had come into use in Riksmal and were unknown in Danish. This difference in vocabulary has now proceeded much farther than in Knudsen's day. Other essential distinctions are to be found in the idioms and syntactical constructions of the two languages; while spoken Norwegian, in accent, emphasis, and pronunciation, has always been markedly different from Danish. This general dissimilarity is now freely recognized by such authorities as Professors Georg Brandes and O. Jespersen, the latter of whom declares: "Es kann nichts nützen, ein Hehl daraus zu machen, dass Norwegisch jetzt wirklich eine selbstständige Sprache ist, die sich in anderen Bahnen bewegt, als das Dänische." (v. Poestion: *Lehrbuch der norwegischen Sprache*. p. 1.).

dation and work of the "Riksmålsforbund," an organization for the defense and advancement of Dano-Norwegian. Able supporters of Knudsen were the essayist and critic Hartvig Lassen (1824-1897) and the eminent philologist Professor Johan Storm (1836-), both of whom fell upon Garborg's theories with scant mercy, while Storm in his book *Det ny-norske Landsmaal* (1888) made short work of the claim of Aasen's language to be regarded as a representative national tongue. Ibsen held himself aloof and took no direct part in the controversy. That Landsmaal did not command his sympathy is clear from the withering contempt with which he refers to it in *Peer Gynt*,¹⁶ but much more

¹⁶ (In the lunatic asylum. Cairo.)

HUHU

"Så lån mig øre.—
Fjernt i øst, som krans om pande,
står de malebarske strande.
Portugiser og Hollænder
landet med kultur bespænder.
Desforuden bor der skarer
af de ægte Malebarer.
Disse folk har sproget blandet;—
De er herrer nu i landet.—
Men i tiden længst forgangen
råded der orangutangen.
Han var skogens mand og herre;
frit han turde slå og snærre.
Som naturens hånd han skabte,
så han gren og så han gabte.
Uforment han turde skrige;
han var hersker i sit rige.—
Ak, men så kom fremmedåget
og forplumred urskogs-sproget.
Firehundredårig natten
ruged over abekatten;
og man ved, så lange nætter
landsens folk i stampe sætter.—
Skogens urlud er forstummet;
ikke længer blir der brummet;—
skal vi vore tanker male,
må det ske ved hjælp af tale.
Hvilken tvang for alle stænder!
Portugiser og Hollænder,
blandingsracen, Malebaren,

from the fact that in all his works he adhered to Dano-Norwegian, a language which he, perhaps more than any other author, has helped to immortalize. To-day the defense of Riksmåal is carried on with great vigour by the "Riksmåalsforbund," which first came into existence in November, 1899. Through its conferences, its publications and its lecture campaigns it has dissipated much ignorance, and made clear to the nation at large the issues at stake. Like its opponents it too has claimed government aid, as in the establishment of a professorship in Riksmåal, but its guiding principle is that the language of the country should be allowed to develop itself naturally without legislative inter-

hver er lige ilde faren.—
 Jeg har prøvet på at fægte
 for vort urskogs-mål, det ægte,—
 prøvet at belive liget,—
 hævdet folkets ret til skriget,—
 skreget selv og påvist trangen
 til dets brug i folkesangen.—
 Skralt man dog min idræt skatter.—
 Nu, jeg tror, min sorg du fatter.
 Tak, at du har lånt mig øre;—
 ved du råd, så lad mig høre!

PEER GYNT

(sagte)

Der står skrevet: man får tude
 med de ulve, som er ude.

(højt)

Kjære ven, såvidt jeg husker
 findes i Marokko busker,
 hvor en flok orangutanger
 lever uden tolk og sanger;
 deres mål lød malebarisk;—
 det var smukt og exemplarisk,—
 dersom De, lig andre standsmænd,
 vandred ud til gavn for landsmænd—

HUHU

Tak at du har lånt mig øre;
 som du råder, vil jeg gjøre.
 (med en stor gebærde)
 Østen har forstødt sin sanger!
 Vesten har orangutanger!"

Peer Gynt. Act IV. Last scene

ference. During the year 1911 it elicited, through queries addressed to the chambers of commerce throughout the whole land, the emphatic verdict that Landsmaal is absolutely valueless in practical business life, and that in such life there is no place for those who cannot write and speak Rikksmaal.

Recollecting that Landsmaal, though built on a natural basis, is an artificial and often capricious compilation of yesterday's date, with a scant literary development, it is scarcely to be imagined that it will ever succeed in supplanting Rikksmaal, an historical and naturally developed language, rich in a great literature which is known and prized by the civilized world. True it is that Landsmaal has secured for itself a legalized position, but legislation is no guarantee for its permanence; true also is it that among certain sections of the peasantry, particularly in the west, it has won much favour, but the towns—the homes of culture and intellectual life, the centers of industry and commerce—and also many of the most populous country districts remain hostile. Its future, then, is a very dubious one. As a still-born book language, a “papermaal,” spoken by no one, it can never oust Rikksmaal from its secure position as the dominant written and spoken language of the country, understood throughout the length and breadth of the land.¹⁷ The assurance of its advocates that it will ultimately remain supreme as the national language is the ungrounded faith of visionaries; but it may with safety be said that it will continue to exercise a modifying influence on Rikksmaal by imparting to the grace and flexibility of the latter an element of native vigour, but whether its work in this direction will have more effect than the dialects themselves is a debatable question. In all likelihood it will again serve its turn as a rallying-cry in party politics, but the more it is made to subserve party interests, the less prospect

¹⁷ It will serve to illustrate the hopeless nature of the task, to which the partisans of Landsmaal have set themselves, to point out, that of a total population of 2,392,698 only 287,060 are to be found in the districts where Landsmaal has been made the leading school language (*v. Morgenbladet* for March 2nd, 1912); and that of more than six hundred newspapers, journals, and magazines of all sorts, published in Norway, only some twenty are in Landsmaal. Prof. H. Paul in his *Principien der Sprachgeschichte* dismisses Landsmaal with the sentence:—“Auch die Bemühungen eine besondere norwegische Gemeinsprache zu schaffen scheitern an der bereits bestehenden Herrschaft des Dänischen.” § 296. 3rd ed.

is there of its gaining acceptance in the nation at large.¹⁸ It may retain its place as a compulsory subject of study in the schools, but it does so to the detriment of true education, as it introduces linguistic confusion in the pupils' mother tongue and tends to drive out the study of the classical and modern languages, to which, in educational value, it is immeasurably inferior.¹⁹ In the pulpit, where eloquence demands a living speech, its present influence is inappreciable, and from the nature of the case its future here cannot be regarded as hopeful. As the literary form for certain of the dialects it may doubtless maintain its ground, but even there its scope falls within the narrowest of limits, while a writer of genius in any dialect is scarcely likely to pay overmuch respect to its authorized standard. For the business activities of modern life it has been condemned as worthless by those best qualified to judge, and with the rapidly developing commerce of the country there is no likelihood of a reversal of so decisive a judgment.

Landsmaal merits recognition in that it is a praiseworthy, even if somewhat misguided, attempt to express Norse nationality in a peculiarly distinctive form, while the history of that attempt is not only an illustration of the spirit of patriotism and an interesting sidelight on the Norwegian character, but also a noteworthy episode in the development of modern Norway. Its chief value, however, lies in the great service it has rendered in helping to bring the Norwegian dialects out of their obscurity and to make clear their linguistic status and worth; while corollary to this is its reaction upon Riksmaal, by which it has materially accelerated the movement for the strengthening of the pure Norse element in modern Norwegian. It is on both these grounds, the political and the philological, but more particularly on the latter, that New Norse can fairly claim our consideration as a subject not unworthy of study.

¹⁸ It has become a factor in party politics to such a degree that in February 1912, it became the cause of a ministerial crisis. Five members of the Cabinet threw up office on account of a public speech made by the Premier—Konow—in favour of Landsmaal, a procedure not approved by his party. The Prime Minister was obliged to resign.

¹⁹ To the prominence given to Landsmaal educationally, and to the movement generally, may in part be ascribed the present decadence of classical study in Norway. Greek has absolutely no place in any of the Norwegian schools, nor is it recognized in the State curricula, while even the most rudimentary knowledge of Latin is not compulsory for matriculation candidates.

GRAMMATICAL OUTLINES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Engl.	English
F.	Feminine
Imper.	Imperative
Imperf.	Imperfect
Infin.	Infinitive
Intr.	Intransitive
L.	Landsmaal
M.	Masculine
N	Neuter
ON.	Old Norse
Part.	Participle (Past)
Pl.	Plural
Pres.	Present
R.	Riksmaal
Sing.	Singular
Tr.	Transitive

ALPHABET

§1. The alphabet in L. is the same as in R.:—A,a,B,b,C,c,D,d,E,e,F,f,G,g,H,h,I,i,J,j,K,k,L,l,M,m,N,n,O,o,P,p,Q,q,R,r,S,s,T,t,U,u,V,v,X,x,Y,y,Z,z,Æ,æ,Ø,ø,AA,aa. Of these, c, q, x, z are used only in words of foreign origin.

§2. Capitals are used at the beginning of a sentence, with proper names, and with the polite pronoun of address—De, Dykk, Dykkar. The practice of beginning every substantive with a capital (which is now dying out in R.) does not obtain in L.

§3. As a rule Roman characters are employed in printing, but the Gothic are also to be found.

PHONETIC SUMMARY

§4. The L. vowel sounds may be classified into Front-, Mid-, and Back-tongue, according to the part of the tongue that plays the most important part in their formation; into High, Medium, and Low, according to the position of the tongue in the mouth; and into Round, and Wide, according to the formation of the lips, thus—

	HIGH		MEDIUM		LOW	
	Wide	Round	Wide	Round	Wide	Round
Front-tongue	i (ei)	y (øy)	e	ø	æ	
Mid-tongue		u (au)				
Back-tongue				o	a	aa

§ 5. The Front- and Mid-tongue vowels may be *open* or *closed*, and in cases where there might be confusion in words of similar spelling, this is indicated by ` and ´ respectively; e.g., ei fòr = *a furrow*, han fór = *he went*. The circumflex is used to indicate the elision of *d* or *de*; e.g., fâr (fader) = *father*, sâl (sadel) = *saddle*.

§ 6. When final and before a single consonant a vowel is long; e.g., liv = *life*, hus = *house*; before two or more consonants, short; e.g., budde = *dwelt*, fritt = *surely*.

§ 7. Palatal Mutation (i-Umlaut) of the *back* (i.e., Mid- and Back-tongue) vowels to the *front* (i.e., Front-tongue) takes place as follows:—

u to y: ung—yngre; upp—yppa.

au to øy: draum—drøyma; blaut—bløyta.

o to ø: bok—bøker; dom—døma.

ò to ø: sòn—søner; sòva—søv.

ò to y: sòrg—syrgja; òst—ysta.

a to e: mann—menner; lang—lenger.

aa to æ: taa—tær; vaat—væta.

jo to y: ljos—lysa.

ju to y: mjuk—mykja.

Labial Mutation (u-Umlaut) also occurs:—

a to o: barn—born.

In R. only the i-Umlaut is found:—

u to y: ung—yngre.

o to: klo—klør.

o to y: tolv—tylvt.

a to æ: mand—mænd.

aa to æ: taa—tær.

§ 8. Vowel Gradation (Ablaut) of the strong verbs and their derivatives appears thus:—

1. i—a—u: finna—fann—funne.
e—a—o: stela—stal—stole.
2. e—a—e: gjeva—gav—gjeve.
3. i—e—i: driva—dreiv—drive.
4. y (jo, ju)—au—ò: frysa—fraus—fròse.
5. a (aa)—ó—a (e): fara—fór—fare.
6. aa (a)—e—aa (a, e): blaasa—bles—blaase.

In R. the gradations are:—

- i (æ, y)—a—u: finde—fand—funde .
i (e, æ)—a (aa)—i (e, æ, aa): give—gav—givet.
i—e—e: drive—drev—drevet.
y—ø—u (ø): fryse—frøs—froset.
a—o—a: fare—for—faret.

§ 9. Consonants may be either Stopped or Unstopped, according as the stream of air from the lungs is checked before emission or has an unchecked passage; and Voiced or Voiceless, according as the vocal chords are set in motion or kept at rest.

In the case of the Stopped consonants the checking barrier may be the root of the tongue, or the tip of the tongue and the teeth, or the lips; while the Unstopped are sounded by the breath or voice, as the case may be, passing over the tongue, or by the side of it, or through the nose, calling into play at the same time the root, back, or tip of the tongue, the lips, or the teeth and lip.

One of the most characteristic differences between the Eastern and the Western dialects is the prevalence in the former of the "thick l" (l) sound, which is formed by placing the tip of the tongue against the gums instead of against the teeth. This l occurs after vowels other than *i* or *ei*; e.g., blad, sol, fugl, and before *p*, *v*, *m*, *k*, and *g*; e.g., kælv, hælg. In the same Eastern dialects *d*, *t*, *l*, *n*, and *s* after *r* are sounded with the tip of the tongue in the same position as for *l*; e.g., svart; lærd; Lars.

§ 10. Consonants when long are written double, except when preceding another consonant; e.g., lapp, slepte, (from sleppa). Before *s* of the possessive case and in compounds the double consonant is retained.

§ 11. Final *d* after a vowel is often omitted in pronunciation; e.g., god, glad, breid (pronounced go, gla, brei) and also after

TABLE OF CONSONANTAL SOUNDS

	TONGUE-ROOT		TONGUE-BACK		TONGUE-TIP AND TEETH		LIPS		TEETH AND LIP		BREATH
	Voiceless	Voiced	V-less	Voiced	V-less	Voiced	V-less	Voiced			
STOPPED	k	g			t	d	p	b			
	.		kj	j	s	r	.		f	v	h
UNSTOPPED											
	Side of tongue	.				l	.				
	Through nose	.				n	.	m			

r; e.g., *ord*, *skard* (pronounced *ór*, *skar*). When final after *l* and *n* it may also be silent, in which case the preceding consonant is lengthened; e.g., *land*, *kveld* (pronounced *lann*, *kvell*).

[In the Eastern dialects *rd* is sounded as thick *l*; e.g., *ord* (pronounced *ól*).]

§ 12. Initial *g* before a Front-tongue vowel is sounded *j* (Engl. *y*); e.g., *geit* (pronounced *jeit*). Similarly initial *k* before a front vowel is sounded as *kj* (E. *ch*); e.g., *køyra* (pronounced *kjøyra*).

§ 13. Medial and final *mb* and *rn* are often pronounced as lengthened *m* and *n* respectively; e.g., *lamb* (pronounced *lamm*), *timber* (pronounced *timmer*), *horn* (pronounced *honn*).

§ 14. Final *t* in dissyllabic words is frequently silent; e.g., *huset* (pronounced *hus`e*).

STRESS AND MUSICAL ACCENT

§ 15. The stress regularly falls on the first syllable in native words; exceptions are the prefixes *be-*, *ge-*, *er-*, *for-*, *tíl-*, and *u-*, which are not stressed. In words of Greek, Latin or French origin the last syllable is stressed; verbs in *-era* have the stress on the first *e*; e. g., *studéra to study*, *rumstéra to be noisy*.

In L. as in R. there are two kinds of musical accent, the Simple rising inflection in monosyllabic words and in words originally monosyllabic, and the Compound inflection in words of more than one syllable. These accents may be denoted by ´ and `; e.g., *dag´en*, *byg`dom*.

ARTICLES

§ 16. The Definite Article has two forms—(1) a terminal and (2) an attributive, the former added as a suffix to the substantive when no adjective precedes, and the latter used when the substantive is preceded by an adjective.

(1)	Sing.	Pl.
	M. -en	-ne
	F. -i (-a)	-ne
	N. -et	-i
E.g.,	M. <i>baaten</i> = <i>the boat</i>	<i>baatarne</i> = <i>the boats</i>
	F. <i>bygdi</i> = <i>the settlement</i>	<i>bygderne</i> = <i>the settlements</i>

N. huset=*the house* husi=*the houses*

Feminine substantives ending in *a* take no Definite Article suffix in the singular; e.g., kona=*the woman*. The Sing. def. -a is that of the E. Norw. form of Landsmaal.

Neuter substantives ending in *a* take no suffix to express the Definite Article in the singular, but change the *a* to *o* in the plural; e.g., *øyra*=*the ear*, *øyro*=*the ears*.

(2)	Sing.	Pl.
	M. den	} dei
	F. den	
	N. det	

E.g., M. Sing. den vene guten=*the handsome boy*

F. Sing. den litle boki=*the little book*

N. Sing. det store huset=*the large house*

Pl. dei gamle federne=*the old fathers*

Note the use of both Definite Articles in this attributive form, a peculiarity also of R.

§ 17. The Indefinite Article:

M. ein	e.g., ein mann= <i>a man</i>
F. ei	e.g., ei aar= <i>an oar</i>
N. eit	e.g., eit hus= <i>a house</i>

In R. the Articles have but two genders—Common and Neuter.

Definite					
(1)	Sing.	Pl.	(2)	Sing.	Pl.
	C. -en	} -ne		den	} de
	N. -et			det	

Indefinite

C. en
N. et

SUBSTANTIVES

§ 18. Substantives have two numbers and are of three Genders. When the Definite Article is suffixed, the substantive is said to be in the Definite form.

MASCULINE SUBSTANTIVES

§ 19. The great majority of masculine substantives, both strong and weak, form the plural in *-ar*.

Indefinite			Definite	
Sing.		Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
stein	<i>stone</i>	steinar	steinen	steinarne
baat	<i>boat</i>	baatar	baaten	baatarne
konge	<i>king</i>	kongar	kongen	kongarne
arm	<i>arm</i>	armar	armen	armarne
dag	<i>day</i>	dagar	dagen	dagarne
time	<i>hour</i>	timar	timen	timarne
fisk	<i>fish</i>	fiskar	fisken	fiskarne
fugl	<i>bird</i>	fuglar	fuglen	fuglarne
hest	<i>horse</i>	hestar	hesten	hestarne
stol	<i>chair</i>	stolar	stolen	stolarne
ring	<i>ring</i>	ringar	ringen	ringarne
ende	<i>end</i>	endar	enden	endarne.

§ 20. Masculines ending in *el*, *ul*, *er*, *ar*, *on*, and *un* elide the penultimate vowel in the plural.

Sing.		Pl.
spegel	<i>mirror</i>	speglar
lengsel	<i>longing</i>	lengslar
jøkul	<i>icicle</i>	jøklar
ongul	<i>hook</i>	onglar
aaker	<i>field</i>	aakrar
vinter	<i>winter</i>	vintrar
hamar	<i>hammer</i>	hamrar
sumar	<i>summer</i>	sumrar
morgon	<i>morning</i>	morgnar
jøtun	<i>giant</i>	jøtnar

Masculine derivatives ending in *ar* form the plural without elision; e. g., tenar *servant*, from tena *to serve*, takes in the plural tenarar, but in the Definite plural tenarane.

§ 21. Masculine substantives ending in *gg*, *lg*, *ng*, *kk*, *lk*, and *nk* preceded by a front vowel take *-jer* in the plural.

Sing.		Pl.
bekk	<i>stream, beck</i>	bekkjer
belg	<i>pod, legume</i>	belgjer
benk	<i>bench</i>	benkjer
dregg	<i>grapnel</i>	dreggjjer
dreng	<i>servant, farm-hand</i>	drengjer

Sing.	Pl.
drykk <i>drink</i>	drykkjer
flekk, <i>stain, spot</i>	flekkjer
hegg <i>wild cherry-tree</i>	heggjer
klegg <i>horse-fly, cleg</i>	kleggjer
legg <i>leg</i>	leggjer
rygg <i>back</i>	ryggjer
rykk <i>jerk</i>	rykkjer
sekk <i>sack</i>	sekkjer
sleng <i>fall, toss</i>	slengjer
streng <i>string</i>	strengjer
stylk <i>stem, stalk</i>	stylkjer
stying <i>sting, stitch</i>	styingjer
vegg <i>wall</i>	veggjer
veng <i>wing</i>	vengjer

Here also belong:—

øyk <i>horse</i>	øykjer
gong <i>time, occasion</i>	gongjer

§ 22. Other masculines which form their plural in *-er* are:—

Sing.	Pl.
gjest <i>guest</i>	gjester
gris <i>pig</i>	griser
hyl <i>pool</i>	hyler
kvist <i>attic</i>	kvister
led <i>joint</i>	leder
lem <i>trap-door</i>	lemer
lit <i>colour</i>	liter
lut <i>lot, share</i>	luter
mùn <i>degree</i>	mùner
rett <i>dish (of food)</i>	retter
sau <i>sheep</i>	sauer
sed <i>custom</i>	seder
stad <i>place</i>	stader
ven <i>friend</i>	vener
vev <i>loom</i>	vever

also words ending in *-nad* as well as a few foreign words in *-a* take *-er* as, *maanad month*, *maanader*, *villa villa*, *villaer*.

§ 23. The following likewise have the plural in *-er*, but with umlaut of the root vowel:—

Sing.	Pl.
fot <i>foot</i>	føter
mann <i>man</i>	menner
nagl <i>finger-nail</i>	negler
son <i>son</i>	søner
spon <i>chip, wooden spoon</i>	spøner
brôr <i>brother</i>	brøder
fâr <i>father</i>	feder
bonde <i>peasant, farmer</i>	bønder

§ 24. *Sko shoe* becomes in the plural *sko* or *skor*, and *ljaa scythe* *ljaar*.

FEMININE SUBSTANTIVES

§ 25. The majority of strong feminines and most of those ending in a vowel—if monosyllabic—form the plural in *-er*.

Indefinite		Definite	
Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
ætt <i>family, race</i>	ætter	ætti	ætterne
bru <i>bridge</i>	bruer	brui	bruerne
bygd <i>country district</i>	bygder	bygdi	bygderne
bøn <i>prayer</i>	bøner	bøni	bønerne
fil <i>file</i>	filer	fili	filerne
greip <i>grip, dungfork</i>	greiper	greipi	greiperne
mark <i>field, land</i>	marker	marki	markerne
naal <i>needle</i>	naaler	naali	naalerne
segn <i>legend</i>	segner	signi	segnerne
skaal <i>bowl, toast</i>	skaaler	skaali	skaalerne
ski <i>snow-shoe, ski</i>	skier	skii	skierne
sokn <i>parish</i>	sokner	sokni	soknerne
tjørn <i>tarn</i>	tjørner	tjørni	tjørnerne

§ 26. Certain strong feminines take *-ar* in the plural:—

Sing.	Pl.
aadr <i>vein, artery</i>	aadrar
aar <i>oar</i>	aarar
byrd <i>burden</i>	byrdar
elv <i>stream, river</i>	elvar
erm <i>sleeve</i>	ermar

Sing.	Pl.
fliis <i>chip, shaving</i>	fliisar
grind <i>frame</i>	grindar
gyger <i>giantess</i>	gygrar
heid <i>table-land</i>	heidar
helg <i>holiday</i>	helgar
herd <i>shoulder</i>	herdar
kleiv <i>steep road</i>	kleivar
kvern <i>mill, quern</i>	kvernar
mjødm <i>hip, haunch</i>	mjødmar
myr <i>moor, marsh</i>	myrar
møy <i>maiden</i>	møyar
reim <i>strap</i>	reimar
røyr <i>groin</i>	røyrar
røys <i>heap of stones</i>	røysar
sild <i>herring</i>	sildar
sîn <i>sinew</i>	sînar
sæter <i>mountain-pasture</i>	sæterar
vik <i>bay, creek</i>	vikar
øks <i>axe, hatchet</i>	øksar
øy <i>island</i>	øyar

also all substantives ending in *-ing*:

gjerning <i>action, act</i>	gjerningar
rekning <i>account, bill</i>	rekningar

Eng *meadow*, hes *hay-rack*, and klyv *pack (for a horse)* form their plural in *-jar*: *-engjar*, *hesjar*, *klyvjar*.

§ 27. The following feminines take the plural in *-er*, or *-r* when the substantive ends in a vowel, and umlaut the root vowel:—

Sing.	Pl.
and <i>duck</i>	ender
hand <i>hand</i>	hender
natt <i>night</i>	næter
rand <i>line, stroke</i>	render
strand <i>beach, strand</i>	strender
bok <i>book</i>	bøker
bot <i>booth, stall</i>	bøter
glod <i>live coal, ember</i>	gløder
nót <i>fishing-net</i>	nøter
rot <i>root</i>	røter

klo	<i>claw</i>	klør
tro	<i>pipe, drain</i>	trør
gaas	<i>goose</i>	gjæser
skaak	<i>shaft (of a cart)</i>	skjæker
taag	<i>rootlet</i>	tæger
flaa	<i>float</i>	flær
kraa	<i>corner</i>	krær
raa	<i>yard (of a ship)</i>	rær
taa	<i>toe</i>	tær
ku	<i>cow</i>	kyr
mus	<i>mouse</i>	myser

Dotter *daughter* and moder (môr) *mother* form the plural by umlaut only, døttter *daughters* and møder *mothers*. Syster *sister* remains unchanged.

§ 28. Certain feminines with open *o* take *-er* in the plural, and have *e* as the stem vowel:—

Sing.	Pl.
fonn <i>snow-drift</i>	fenner
nøt <i>nut</i>	neter
stong <i>pole, rod</i>	stenger
tong <i>tongs</i>	tenger
tonn <i>tooth</i>	tenner

The following have the stem vowel *a* in the plural:—

nøs	<i>nose</i>	naser
ogn	<i>husk</i>	agner
oksl	<i>shoulder</i>	aksler

§ 29. Feminines of more than one syllable ending in *a* or *e* have their plural in *-or*:—

Sing.	Pl.
fure or fura <i>fir-tree</i>	furor
gjente or gjenta <i>lass, girl</i>	gjentor
gate or gata <i>street</i>	gator
klokke or klokka <i>bell</i>	klokkor
kone or kona <i>woman, wife</i>	konor
vike or vika <i>week</i>	vikor
vise or visa <i>song, ballad</i>	visor

NEUTER SUBSTANTIVES

§ 30. Most neuters are strong and remain unchanged in the plural.

Indefinite		Definite	
Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
aar <i>year</i>	aar	aaret	aari
bord <i>table</i>	bord	bordet	bordi
bur <i>cage</i>	bur	buret	buri
dyr <i>animal</i>	dyr	dyret	dyri
eple <i>apple</i>	eple	eplet	epli
eventyr <i>tale</i>	eventyr	eventyret	eventyri
fat <i>cask</i>	fat	fatet	fati
gjerde <i>fence</i>	gjerde	gjerdet	gjerdi
glas <i>glass</i>	glas	glaset	glasi
hus <i>house</i>	hus	huset	husi
menneskje <i>man, person</i>	menneskje	menneskjet	menneski
rike <i>kingdom</i>	rike	riket	riki
stykke <i>piece</i>	stykke	stykket	stykki
tre <i>tree</i>	tre	treet	trei
troll <i>ogre</i>	troll	trollet	trolli

Barn *child*, lamb *lamb*, plagg *garment*, and vatn *water*, may form their plural by back umlaut—born, lomb, plogg, and votn—or may remain unchanged.

§ 31. Weak neuters, all of which end in *a*, change the *a* to *o* in the plural (see § 16):—

Sing.	Pl.
auga <i>eye</i>	augo
hjarta <i>heart</i>	hjarto
hyrna <i>horn</i>	hyrno
noda <i>key</i>	nodo
nyra <i>kidney</i>	nyro
nysta <i>ball of yarn</i>	nysto
okla <i>ankle</i>	oklo
øyra <i>ear</i>	øyro

In R. substantives of common gender form their plural as a rule in *-er*, or *-r* when they end in unaccented *e*; those ending in *er* or *el* take *-e* in the plural, and a few suffer no change. Neuter substantives generally remain unchanged, but those which end in *en* or in unaccented *e* take *-r*.

CASE

§ 32. Only one case—the Nominative—which does duty also as Objective, exists in full vigour in Landsmaal. Remains of a Dative, ending in *-e* or *-a* for the singular and *-om* for the plural, are still found in some Eastern and Northern dialects, but the case occurs in authorized L. only in such phrases as—i live *alive*, i make *quietly*. The Genitive in *-s* can be used only: (1) with proper names; e.g., Olavs hestar *Olaf's horses*, (2) in compounds; e.g., kongsgarden *the king's palace*, hundsrova *a dog's tail*, (3) after certain prepositions; e.g., til bords *at table, to dinner*, and (4) in a number of fixed phrases; e.g., eit aars tid (*the course of*) *a year*. To make good this latter deficiency, possession is expressed by: (1) the prepositions *av, aat, etter, for, i, med, paa, til, yver*; e.g., bøkene til Gunnar *Gunnar's books*, får til Anne *Anna's father*, arven aat guten *the boy's inheritance*, det største huset i bygdi *the biggest house of the district*; (2) the use of the Genitive case of the third person sing. of the Personal Pronoun, *hans* and *hennar*, before personal names and words such as *får* and *môr*; e.g., hatten hennar Gunhild *Gunhild's hat*, baaten hans Sigurd *Sigurd's boat*; (3) using the Possessive Pronoun of the third person—*sin, si, sitt, sine*—in agreement with the object possessed; e.g., môr sin stol *mother's chair*, får sitt hus *father's house*, guten si hand *the boy's hand*; (4) use of compounds; e.g., folkeviljen *the will of the people*.

[In R. the Genitive case for both singular and plural is formed by adding *-s*. Its place, however, is there also often taken by prepositions or by the use of compounds.]

ADJECTIVES

§ 33. Adjectives have two forms—Definite and Indefinite—and two numbers—and vary in inflection also according to gender.

§ 34. The Indefinite, or Strong, form is used in conjunction with the Indefinite Article, or without any qualifying adjective or pronoun preceding. It is inflected thus:—

Sing.			Pl.	
M.	F.	N.	M.F.N.	
breid	breid	breidt	breide	<i>broad</i>

gamall	gamall	gamalt	gamle	<i>old</i>
gløgg	gløgg	gløgt	gløgge	<i>sharp-witted</i>
god	god	godt	gode	<i>good</i>
kvit	kvit	kvitt	kvite	<i>white</i>
ny	ny	nytt	nye	<i>new</i>
rik	rik	rikt	rike	<i>rich</i>
stor	stor	stort	store	<i>large</i>
svart	svart	svart	svarte	<i>black</i>

E.g., ein gamall mann *an old man*, ei gløgg kona *a sharp-witted woman*, ferskt smør *fresh butter*, gamle menner *old men*.

Adjectives ending in *t* preceded by a vowel take *tt* in the neuter; e.g., kvit—kvitt; those ending in *d* take *dt*; e.g., breid—breidt, except in the case of adjectival participles from weak verbs, which drop *-d* and take *-t* only; e.g., bygd—bygt. When an adjective ends in a vowel it takes *-tt* in the neuter; e.g., ny—nytt. Adjectives ending in a double consonant drop one of these before the neuter *-t*; e.g., gløgg—gløgt, but full *full*, and viss *sure*, take fullt and visst, to avoid confusion with fult, from ful *foul*, and vist, from vis *wise*. Adjectives of more than one syllable contract in the plural; e.g., gamall *old*, pl. gamle, diger *stout*, pl. digre. Adjectives of nationality ending in *sk* take no *-t* in the neuter; e.g., eit islandsk hus *an Icelandic house*, but ferskt smør *fresh butter*.

§ 35. Adjectives ending in *en* are inflected thus, when indefinite:—

M.	Sing.		Pl.	
	F.	N.	M.F.N.	
eigen	eigi	eige	eigne	<i>own</i>
heiden	heidi	heide	heidne	<i>heathen</i>
kristen	kristi	kriste	kristne	<i>christian</i>
løgjen	løgi	løgje	løgne	<i>droll</i>
mykjen	myki	mykje	mykne	<i>much</i>
open	opi	ope	opne	<i>open</i>

To this class belong the participles of strong verbs such as faren *travelled*, skriven *written*. Adjectives whose stem ends in *j* elide the latter before *i*; e.g., mykjen—myki. Liten *small* takes smaa in the plural.

[In R. the indefinite adjective has, as a rule, *-t* or *-et* in the neuter, and *-e* in the plural.]

§ 36. Some adjectives are uninflected in gender and number. These are:—

a) certain adjectives ending in *a*; e.g., *einstaka single*; *jamstroka plane, level*; *fagna able, clever*; *gripa clever*.

b) present participles in *ande* when used adjectivally; e.g., *sjaaande visible*, *truande trustworthy*, *lesande readable*.

c) past participles of weak verbs when used adjectivally; e.g., *kasta thrown*, *berga saved*.

§ 37. The Definite, or Weak, form of the adjective is used when preceded by the Definite Article or other qualifying adjectival pronoun, such as *min my*, *din your*, *vaar our*. The Definite adjective remains unchanged for all genders in both singular and plural. Thus:—

Sing.		Pl.	
M.	F.	N.	M.F.N.
rike	rike	rike	rike <i>the rich</i>

E.g., *den rike mannen the rich man*, *den gamle kona the old woman*, *det høge huset the high house*, *dei rike kongarne the rich kings*.

Liten little in the Definite form becomes *litle*; e.g., *det litle barnet the little child*.

§ 38. The degrees of comparison are usually formed by adding *-are* and *-ast* to the Positive. Thus:—

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
rik <i>rich</i>	rikare <i>richer</i>	rikast(e) <i>richest</i>
kjærleg <i>kind</i>	kjærlegare <i>kinder</i>	kjærlegast(e) <i>kindest</i>
lett <i>easy</i>	lettare <i>easier</i>	lettast(e) <i>easiest</i>
open <i>open</i>	opnare <i>more open</i>	opnast(e) <i>most open</i>
tru <i>true</i>	truare <i>truer</i>	truast(e) <i>truest</i>
varsam <i>cautious</i>	varsamare <i>more cautious</i>	varsamast(e) <i>most cautious</i>

§ 39. Some adjectives take *-re* in the Comparative and *-st* in the Superlative with umlaut of the stem vowel:—

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
lang <i>long</i>	lengre <i>longer</i>	lengst <i>longest</i>
smaa <i>small</i>	smærre <i>smaller</i>	smæst <i>smallest</i>
stor <i>large</i>	større <i>larger</i>	størst <i>largest</i>
tung <i>heavy</i>	tyngre <i>heavier</i>	tyngst <i>heaviest</i>
ung <i>young</i>	yngre <i>younger</i>	yngst <i>youngest</i>

§ 40. Certain adjectives may have either *are—ast*, or *re—st* with umlaut if not already umlauted:—

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
djup <i>deep</i>	djupare <i>deeper</i> djypre "	djupast <i>deepest</i> djypst "
faa <i>few</i>	faaare <i>fewer</i> færre "	faaast <i>fewest</i> færst "
grov <i>coarse</i>	grovare <i>coarser</i> grøvre "	grovast <i>coarsest</i> grøvst "
høg <i>high</i>	høgare <i>higher</i> høgre "	høgst <i>highest</i> høgst "
laag <i>low</i>	laagare <i>lower</i> lægre "	laagast <i>lowest</i> lægst "
trong <i>narrow</i>	trongare <i>narrower</i> trengre "	trongast <i>narrowest</i> trengst "

§ 41. The following have irregular comparison:—

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
gamall <i>old</i>	eldre <i>older</i>	eldst <i>oldest</i>
god <i>good</i>	betre <i>better</i>	best <i>best</i>
liten <i>small</i>	mindre <i>smaller</i>	minst <i>smallest</i>
mange <i>many</i>	fleire <i>more</i>	flest <i>most</i>
mykjen <i>much</i>	meir <i>more</i>	mest <i>most</i>
vond <i>bad</i>	verre <i>worse</i>	verst <i>worst</i>

§ 42. Certain adjectives are found only in the Comparative and Superlative:—

Comp.	Sup.
attare <i>hinder</i>	attarst <i>hindermost</i>
fremre <i>more in front</i>	fremst <i>foremost</i>
fyrre <i>former (in time)</i>	fyrst <i>first</i>
indre <i>inner</i>	inst <i>innermost</i>
nedre <i>lower, nether</i>	nedst <i>lowest, nethermost</i>
nørdre <i>northern</i>	nørdst <i>northmost</i>
øvre <i>over, upper (in space)</i>	øvst <i>overmost, uppermost</i>
søre (sydre) <i>southern</i>	synst <i>southernmost</i>
yppare <i>upper (in degree)</i>	ypparst <i>uppermost</i>
ytre <i>outer</i>	ytst <i>outmost</i>

Sist *last* and einast *only* are Superlative forms. Høyre *right* and vinstre *left* are properly Comparatives.

§ 43. Some adjectives, notably those ending in *ut*, form the Comparative and Superlative by *meir* and *mest*:—

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
hyrnut <i>angular</i>	meir hyrnut	mest hyrnut
krokut <i>crooked</i>	meir krokut	mest krokut
krossut <i>crossed</i>	meir krossut	mest krossut
myrut <i>marshy</i>	meir myrut	mest myrut
sotut <i>sooty</i>	meir sotut	mest sotut
framand <i>foreign</i>	meir framand	mest framand
spakvoren <i>tame</i>	meir spakvoren	mest spakvoren

[In R. comparison, as a rule, is effected by adding to the Positive *-ere* and *-est*, or *-st* in the case of adjectives ending in *ig* or *som*. Some, as in L., have umlaut of the root vowel, while others use *mere* and *mest*, or employ words from other stems.]

§ 44.

CARDINAL NUMERALS

ein, ei, eit	<i>one</i>
to (tvo)	<i>two</i>
tri	<i>three</i>
fire	<i>four</i>
fem	<i>five</i>
seks	<i>six</i>
sju	<i>seven</i>
aatte	<i>eight</i>
ni	<i>nine</i>
ti	<i>ten</i>
elleve	<i>eleven</i>
tolv	<i>twelve</i>
trettan	<i>thirteen</i>
fjortan	<i>fourteen</i>
femtan	<i>fifteen</i>
sekstan	<i>sixteen</i>
syttan	<i>seventeen</i>
attan	<i>eighteen</i>
nittan	<i>nineteen</i>
tjuge	<i>twenty</i>
ein og tjuge	<i>twenty-one</i>
to og tjuge	<i>twenty-two</i>
tri og tjuge	<i>twenty-three</i>

tretti	<i>thirty</i>
fyrsti	<i>forty</i>
femti	<i>fifty</i>
seksti	<i>sixty</i>
sytti	<i>seventy</i>
aatti (aatteti)	<i>eighty</i>
nitti	<i>ninety</i>
hundrad	<i>hundred</i>
tusen (tusund)	<i>thousand</i>

§ 45.

ORDINAL NUMERALS

(den) fyrste	<i>first</i>
" andre	<i>second</i>
" tridje	<i>third</i>
" fjerde (fjorde)	<i>fourth</i>
" femte	<i>fifth</i>
" sette	<i>sixth</i>
" sjuande	<i>seventh</i>
" aattande	<i>eighth</i>
" niande	<i>ninth</i>
" tiande	<i>tenth</i>
" ellefte	<i>eleventh</i>
" tolvte	<i>twelfth</i>
" trettande	<i>thirteenth</i>
" fjortande	<i>fourteenth</i>
" femtande	<i>fifteenth</i>
" sekstande	<i>sixteenth</i>
" syttande	<i>seventeenth</i>
" attande	<i>eighteenth</i>
" nittande	<i>nineteenth</i>
" tjugande	<i>twentieth</i>
" ein og tjugande	<i>twenty-first</i>
" to og tjugande	<i>twenty-second</i>
" tri og tjugande	<i>twenty-third</i>
" trettiande	<i>thirtieth</i>
" fyrtiande	<i>fortieth</i>
" femtiande	<i>fiftieth</i>
" sekstiande	<i>sixtieth</i>
" syttiande	<i>seventieth</i>
" aattiande	<i>eightieth</i>

" nittiande	<i>ninetieth</i>
" hundrade	<i>hundredth</i>
" tusunde	<i>thousandth</i>

§ 46. Ein, ei, eit is the only numeral with inflectional forms. In substantival use the form is *eine* for all three genders; e.g., *den eine* (m. f.) *det eine* (n.). In the early L. books *two* and *tri* had neuter forms—*tvau* and *try*. *Ei* (R. *en*) used before another numeral signifies *about*; e.g., *ei aatte dagar* *about eight days*; *ei trettan fjortan* *about thirteen or fourteen*.

PRONOUNS

§ 47.

Personal

First Person

	Sing.		Pl.
Nom.	eg <i>I</i>	vi <i>or me</i>	<i>we</i>
Obj.	meg <i>me</i>	oss	<i>us</i>

Second Person

Nom.	du (De) <i>you</i>	de	<i>you</i>
Obj.	deg (Dykk) <i>you</i>	dykk	<i>you</i>
Poss.	(Dykkar) <i>your, yours</i>	dykkar	<i>your, yours</i>

Third Person

	M.	F.	N.	M.F.N.
Nom.	han <i>he</i>	ho <i>she</i>	det <i>it</i>	dei <i>they</i>
Obj.	han <i>him</i> (honom)	henne <i>her</i>	det <i>it</i>	dei(m) <i>them</i>
Poss.	hans <i>his</i>	hennar <i>her, hers</i>		deira <i>their, theirs</i>

Me is used in the West and *vi* in the East and North. *Du—deg* is used among friends and in addressing children and servants, while *De—Dykk* are the polite forms employed in speaking to strangers. *Honom* for *han* is used only when emphasis is required.

§ 48. When the Personal Pronouns are used predicatively, they stand in the nominative, not, as in R., in the objective; e.g., *det er eg* *it is I*, [R. *det er mig*], *det var ho som skreiv* *it was she who wrote*; [R. *det var hende som skrev*.]

Reflexive

§ 49. The Reflexive Pronoun of the third person for both numbers is *seg* *himself, herself, itself, themselves*. For the first

and second persons the objective cases of the corresponding Personal Pronouns are used; e.g., *ho slo seg she hurt herself*; *eg kneip meg I pinched myself*.

Reciprocal

§ 50. The Reciprocal Pronouns are *kvarannan each other* and *einannan one another*. *Kvarannan* is used mostly in its plural form *kvarandre*, while the form *kvaltanna*, for man and woman, is also found; e.g., *dei slo kvarannan (or einannan) they struck each other*; *dei hjelppte kvartanna they helped each other* (said of man and woman).

§ 51.

Possessive

	Sing.		Pl.
M.	F.	N.	M.F.N.
min	mi	mitt	mine <i>my, mine</i>
din	di	ditt	dine <i>your, yours</i>
sin	si	sitt	sine <i>his, hers, its</i>
vaar	vaar	vaart	vaare <i>our, ours</i>

The forms *min*, *din*, etc., supply the part of the missing genitive cases in the Personal Pronouns, and conversely the genitive cases *dykkar your* and *deira their* fill partially the place of plural possessive Pronouns for the second and third persons, respectively.

Datival forms are in use in some places:—

M.	F.	N.
minom	minne	mino
dinom	dinne	dino
sinom	sinne	sino

§ 52.

Demonstrative

	Sing.		Pl.
M.	F.	N.	M.F.N.
den	den	det <i>that</i>	dei <i>those</i>
denne	denne	dette <i>this</i>	desse <i>these</i>
denna	denna	detta <i>that yonder</i>	desa <i>those yonder</i>

Demonstratives also are: *same the same*, *slik such*, *soveren such*, *baae both*, and *sjølv self*.

Denne, *dette*, *desse*, are, as a rule, used only adjectivally; e.g., *denne hesten this horse*, *dette eplet this apple*, *desse husi these houses*; but they may also be used substantivally

equivalent to *this one, these*. Den, det, dei, are used both substantivally and adjectivally, but in the former case only when the Demonstrative has special emphasis; e.g., den baaten *that boat*, det treet *that tree*, dei bønderne *those peasants*, Svarten, kor mykje vil du gjeva fyre den? *The black one (horse), how much will you give for him?*

Den, det, dei, is originally a Demonstrative Pronoun, but has now acquired other uses:—(1) as 3rd pers. sing. neut. and 3rd pers. pl. of the Personal Pronouns; v. § 47; (2) as Indefinite Pronouns; v. § 55; (3) as antecedent to the Relative Pronoun—som; v. § 54; and (4) as the attributive form of the Definite Article; v. § 16.

[In R. den and denne have inflectional case forms:—

	Sing.		Pl.		Sing.		Pl.
	C.	N.	C.N.		C.	N.	C.N.
Nom.	den	det	de		denne	dette	disse
Obj.	den	det	dem		denne	dette	disse
Poss.	dens	dets	deres		dennes	dettes	disses]

Interrogative

§ 53. (a) Substantival:—

kven *who?* kva *what?*

Kvi, an old dative form of kva, is used in the sense of *why, wherefore?*

(b) Adjectival:—

M.	F.	N.	
kva for ein	kva for ei	kva for eit	<i>what sort of a?</i>
E.g., Kva for ein kar er du? <i>What sort of a fellow are you?</i>			
Sing. M.	Sing. F.	Sing. N.	Pl. M.F.N.
kva for nokon	kva for nokor	kva for noko	kva for nokre <i>what?</i>
E.g., Kva for noko vas? <i>What nonsense is this?</i>			

Relative

§ 54. The most frequently used Relative Pronoun in L. is som *who, whom, which, that*. It is used for both numbers, for all genders, as subject and object, and also with prepositions, in which latter case the preposition comes after; e.g., den mannen som eg saag igaar *the man whom I saw yesterday*; den mannen som eg saag huset aat *the man whose house I saw*; den litle boki som ho kjøpte *the little book that she bought*.

Der may also be used as a Relative in sentences in which the antecedent is the name of a place; e.g., *ho gjekk up til den prestegarden, der ho fann presten she went up to the vicarage, where she found the rector.*

The Indefinite Relatives are:—

den som *whoever, whosoever, any one who*
 han som " " "
 det som *whatever, whatsoever*
 kva *whatever*

E.g., den som vaag vinn *whoever ventures, wins.*

Kva is used only adjectivally; e.g., *du kann taka kva veg du vil you can take whatever way you like.* Den and det may also be used as Indefinite Relatives, but only in the Objective case; e.g., *dei trur dei kann gjera det dei vil they believe they can do whatever they please.*

[R. is rich in Relative Pronouns, but som is the one most used. Hvilken *who, which* has the possessive form *hvis whose*. The Indefinite Relatives are *hvem der* (or *som*), *hvad der* (or *som*), and *hvilken, hvilket, hvilke*.]

Indefinite

§ 55.

	Sing.		Pl.	
M.	F.	N.	M.F.N.	
all	all	alt	alle	<i>all</i>
annan	onnor	anna	andre	<i>other</i>
annankvar	onnorkvar	annakvart		<i>each other</i>
einkvar	eikor	eitkvart		<i>every, each</i>
hin	hi	hit	hine	<i>the other</i> (of two)
ingen	ingi	inkje	ingi	<i>no, none</i>
korgje	korgje	korgje		<i>neither</i> (of two)
kvar	kvar	kvart		<i>each, every</i>
mang ein	mang ei	mangt eit	mange	<i>many</i> (a one)
nokon	nokor	noko	nokre	<i>some, any</i>
sum	sum	sumt	sume	<i>some, several</i>

Most of the foregoing can be used both adjectivally and substantivally, but *kvar* may be used only adjectivally.

Indefinite substantival pronouns are also *ein one* [R. *man*], *dei they*, and *det it*. *Ein* may be either subject or object; e.g., *ein skal ikkje tru alt ein høyre one should not believe all one*

hears; ein skal høyra mykje fyrr øyro dett av ein *one (you)* *must hear much before the ears fall off one (you)*. Dei and det are used as subjects, the latter also as a proleptic subject, when the predicate comes before the real subject; e.g., dei segjer at han skal koma *they say that he is coming*; det var kaldt *it was cold*; det snøar *it is snowing*; det erge meg aa høyra det *it vexes me to hear that*.

VERBS

§ 56. Verbs are either Strong or Weak, and are conjugated partly by inflection and partly by means of auxiliaries.

Strong Verbs

§ 57. Strong verbs are classified according to their ablaut in six classes—

First Class

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
binda*	bind	batt	bunde	<i>to bind</i>
brenna	brenn	brann	brunne	<i>to burn</i>
drikka	drikk	drakk	drukke	<i>to drink</i>
finna	finn	fann	funne	<i>to find</i>
klinga	kling	klang	klunge	<i>to ring</i>
renna	renn	rann	runne	<i>to run</i>
spinna	spinn	spann	spunne	<i>to spin</i>
stinga*	sting	stakk	stukke	<i>to sting</i>
vinda*	vind	vatt	vunde	<i>to wind</i>
vinna	vinn	vann	vunne	<i>to win</i>
bera	ber	bar	bore	<i>to bear, carry</i>
bresta	brest	brast	broste	<i>to burst</i>
detta	dett	datt	dotte	<i>to fall</i>
gjelda	gjeld	galdt	golde	<i>to be of worth</i>
gleppa	glepp	glapp	gloppe	<i>to slip</i>
gletta	glett	glatt	glotte	<i>to slide, glide</i>
gnella	gnell	gnall	gnolle	<i>to whine, rasp</i>
knekka	knekk	knakk	knokke	<i>to crack</i>
knetta	knett	knatt	knotte	<i>to crackle</i>
kvekka	kvekk	kvakk	kvokke	<i>to be startled</i>
kveppa	kvepp	kvapp	kvoppe	<i>to be startled</i>

*Imper.—bitt; stikk; vikk.

kverva	kverv	kvarv	kvorve	<i>to whirl, eddy</i>
rekka	rekk	rakk	rokke	<i>to be sufficient</i>
skjelva	skjelv	skalv	skolve	<i>to tremble</i>
skjera	skjer	skar	skore	<i>to cut, carve</i>
skrekka	skrekk	skrakk	skrokkje	<i>to shrink up</i>
skrella	skrell	skrall	skrolle	<i>to peal, crash</i>
skvetta	skvett	skvatt	skvotte	<i>to spurt, spout</i>
sleppa	slepp	slapp	sloppe	<i>to escape</i>
sletta	slett	slatt	slotte	<i>to drift</i>
smella	smell	small	smolle	<i>to explode</i>
spenna	spenn	spann	sponne	<i>to be moved</i>
smetta	smett	smatt	smotte	<i>to steal past</i>
spretta	sprett	spratt	sprotte	<i>to break in pieces</i>
stela	stel	stal	stole	<i>to steal</i>
svella	svell	svall	svolle	<i>to swell, tumefy</i>
svelta	svelt	svalt	svolte	<i>to hunger</i>
velta	velt	valt	volte	<i>to overturn, upset</i>
veksa	veks	vaks	vokse	<i>to grow</i>
vera	er	var	vore	<i>to be</i>
verpa	verp	varp	vorpe	<i>to lay eggs</i>
verta	vert	vart	vorte	<i>to become, happen</i>

Here are also to be included:—

kløkka	kløkk	klokk	klokke	<i>to hatch, brood</i>
nyggja	nygg	nogg	nogge	<i>to chafe, scrape</i>
slenga	sleng	slong	slunge	<i>to dangle</i>
sløkka	sløkk	slokk	slokke	<i>to die out (of fire)</i>
støkka	støkk	stokk	stokke	<i>to burst</i>
sverja	sver	svor	svore	<i>to swear</i>
syngja	syng	song	sunge	<i>to sing</i>
søkka	søkk	sokk	sokke	<i>to sink</i>
trenga	treng	trong	trunge	<i>to be in need of</i>
tyggja	tygg	togg	togge	<i>to chew</i>
veva	vev	vov	vove	<i>to weave</i>

Most of these verbs are intransitive. A few, which can be used transitively, take the Weak form when so employed; e.g., *eg brende upp dei gamle brevi igaar I burnt up the old letters yesterday*; *huset brann upp i ei kort tid the house burnt down in a short time*.

[In R. these verbs have in general the same ablaut:—i (æ, y) —a —u.]

§ 58.

Second Class

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
beda	béd	bad	béde	<i>to beg, pray</i>
drepa	drop	drap	drepe	<i>to kill</i>
gjeta	gjet	gat	gjete	<i>to mention</i>
gjeva	gjev	gav	gjeve	<i>to give</i>
kreka	kek	krak	kreke	<i>to creep, crawl</i>
kveda	kved	kvad	kvede	<i>to sing, chant</i>
leka	lek	lak	leke	<i>to leak, drip</i>
lesa	les	las	lese	<i>to read</i>
reka	rek	rak	reke	<i>to drift</i>
sitja	sit	sat	sete	<i>to sit</i>

Here may also be included:—

eta	et	aat	ete	<i>to eat</i>
liggja	ligg	laag	lege	<i>to lie</i>
sjaa	sér	saag	sét*	<i>to see</i>
vega	veg	vog	vege	<i>to weigh</i> (tr. and intr.)

[Most of these verbs have a similar ablaut in R.:—i (e, æ)
—a (aa)—i (e, æ). In R. *dræpe* and *læse* are Weak.]

§ 59.

Third Class

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
bida	bid	beid	bide	<i>to be, exist</i>
bita	bit	beit	bite	<i>to bite</i>
bli†	blir	blei	[vorte]	<i>to be</i>
bliva	bliv	bleiv	blive	<i>to drown</i>
driva	driv	dreiv	drive	<i>to drive</i>
glida	glid	gleid	glide	<i>to slip, slide</i>
glima	glim	gleim	glime	<i>to shine</i>
gnida	gnid	gneid	gnide	<i>to rub, scrape</i>
grina	grin	grein	grine	<i>to grin, make grimaces</i>
gripa	grip	greip	gripe	<i>to catch, grip</i>
kika	kik	keik	kike	<i>to peep, peer</i>
kliva	kliv	kleiv	klive	<i>to climb, clamber</i>
knipa	knip	kneip	knipe	<i>to pinch</i>
kvina	kvin	kvein	kvine	<i>to screech, whine</i>
lida	lid	leid	lide	<i>to suffer, endure</i>
lita	lit	leit	lite	<i>to rely on</i>

*M. & F. sedd.

†Used as an auxiliary.

niga	nig	neig	nige	<i>to bow</i>
rida	rid	reid	ride	<i>to ride</i>
rina	rin	rein	rine	<i>to squeal</i>
risa	ris	reis	rise	<i>to rise, stand up</i>
riva	riv	reiv	rive	<i>to rend, tear</i>
siga	sig	seig	sige	<i>to sink (Intr.)</i>
skina	skin	skein	skine	<i>to shine, glitter</i>
skrida	skrid	skreid	skride	<i>to slide, slip</i>
skrika	skrik	skreik	skrike	<i>to screech</i>
skriva	skriv	skreiv	skrive	<i>to write</i>
slita	slit	sleit	slite	<i>to tear, pull</i>
snida	snid	sneid	snide	<i>to cut</i>
stiga	stig	steig	stige	<i>to climb</i>
svida	svid	sveid	svide	<i>to scorch, burn</i>
svika	svik	sveik	svike	<i>to deceive, defraud</i>
sviva	sviv	sveiv	svive	<i>to turn round</i>
triva	triv	treiv	trive	<i>to seize, grip</i>
vika	vik	veik	vike	<i>to yield, give way</i>

[In R. these verbs have the ablaut: —i — e—e. A few have a Weak participle; e.g., glidd.]

§ 60.

Fourth Class

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
bryta	bryt	braut	brote	<i>to break</i>
by	byd	baud	bode	<i>to command, order</i>
flyta	flyt	flaut	flote	<i>to flow</i>
frysa	frys	fraus	frose	<i>to freeze</i>
gysa	gys	gaus	gose	<i>to gush, well out</i>
gyta	gyt	gaut	gote	<i>to pour out, spawn</i>
nysa	nys	naus	nose	<i>to sneeze</i>
nyta	nyt	naut	note	<i>to enjoy</i>
ry	ryd	raud	rode	<i>to smear</i>
ryta	ryt	raut	rote	<i>to fall down</i>
skyta	skyt	skaut	skote	<i>to push, shoot</i>
tryta	tryt	traut	trote	<i>to cease</i>

All the foregoing also have an infinitive with *jo* (= *jō*) in the stem in place of *y*; e.g., *brjota* for *bryta*, *fljota* for *flyta*, etc. A few verbs in this class have only *jo*:—

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
ljota	lyt	laut	lote	<i>to be obliged to</i>
sjoda	syd	saud	sode	<i>to seethe, boil</i>

The following may have forms in *ju* in place of *y* in the Infinitive; e.g., *drjupa* for *drypa*, *fljuga* for *flyga*, etc.:

Infinitive	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
<i>drypa</i>	<i>dryp</i>	<i>draup</i>	<i>drope</i>	<i>to drip</i>
<i>flyga</i>	<i>flyg</i>	<i>flaug</i>	<i>floge</i>	<i>to fly</i>
<i>fyka</i>	<i>fyk</i>	<i>fauk</i>	<i>foke</i>	<i>to hover, drift</i>
<i>gyva</i>	<i>gyv</i>	<i>gauv</i>	<i>gove</i>	<i>to steam</i> (Intr.)
<i>krypa</i>	<i>kryp</i>	<i>kraup</i>	<i>krope</i>	<i>to creep</i>
<i>lyga</i>	<i>lyg</i>	<i>laug</i>	<i>loge</i>	<i>to tell lies</i>
<i>ryka</i>	<i>ryk</i>	<i>rauk</i>	<i>roke</i>	<i>to smoke, reek</i>
<i>smyga</i>	<i>smyg</i>	<i>smaug</i>	<i>smoge</i>	<i>to slink, steal</i>
<i>stryka</i>	<i>stryk</i>	<i>strauk</i>	<i>stroke</i>	<i>to stroke, rub</i>

Stupa *to stumble* and *skuva* (or *skyva*) *to push, shove*, can also be inflected according to this class:—*styp*—*staup*—*stope*; *skyv*—*skauv*—*skove*, or may be conjugated Weak,—*stupte*, and *skuva*.

[In R. verbs of this class have the ablaut:—*y* — \emptyset — *o* (*u*). Many have Weak participles, *brutt*, *skutt*.]

§ 61.

Fifth Class

Infinitive	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
<i>ala</i>	<i>el</i>	<i>ol</i>	<i>ale</i>	<i>to nourish, feed</i>
<i>fara</i>	<i>fer</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>fare</i>	<i>to go, journey</i>
<i>gala</i>	<i>gjel</i>	<i>gol</i>	<i>gale</i>	<i>to crow</i>
<i>grava</i>	<i>grev</i>	<i>grov</i>	<i>grave</i>	<i>to dig, delve</i>
<i>mala</i>	<i>mel</i>	<i>mol</i>	<i>male</i>	<i>to grind, crush</i>
<i>skave</i>	<i>skjev</i>	<i>skov</i>	<i>skave</i>	<i>to scrape, peel</i>
<i>vada</i>	<i>ved</i>	<i>vod</i>	<i>vade</i>	<i>to wade</i>
<i>aka</i>	<i>ek</i>	<i>ok</i>	<i>eke</i>	<i>to sledge, move</i>
<i>draga</i>	<i>dreg</i>	<i>drog</i>	<i>drege</i>	<i>to draw, pull</i>
<i>gnaga</i>	<i>gneg</i>	<i>gnog</i>	<i>gnege</i>	<i>to gnaw, graze</i>
<i>skaka</i>	<i>skjek</i>	<i>skok</i>	<i>skjeke</i>	<i>to shake, thrust</i>
<i>taka</i>	<i>tek</i>	<i>tok</i>	<i>teke</i>	<i>to take, catch</i>
<i>flaa*</i>	<i>flær</i>	<i>flo</i>	<i>flege</i>	<i>to flay, skin</i>
<i>klaa*</i>	<i>klær</i>	<i>klo</i>	<i>klege</i>	<i>to claw, scratch</i>
<i>slaa</i>	<i>slær</i>	<i>slo</i>	<i>slege</i>	<i>to beat, strike</i>
<i>tvaa</i>	<i>tvær</i>	<i>tvo</i>	<i>tvege</i>	<i>to wash</i>

[In R. most of these verbs have the ablaut:—*a* — *o* — *a*. Some are conjugated Weak, while others—like *staa*, *slaa*—are irregular.]

*More usually conjugated Weak:—*flaar*—*flaade*—*flaatt*; *klaar*—*klaadde*—*klaatt*.

§ 62.

Sixth Class

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
blaasa	blæs	bles	blaase	<i>to blow</i>
faa	fær	fekk	faatt*	<i>to get, receive</i>
gaa†	gaar	gjekk	gaatt	<i>to go, proceed</i>
graata	græt	gret	graate	<i>to cry, weep</i>
halda‡	held	heldt	halde	<i>to hold, keep</i>
hanga	heng	hekk	hange	<i>to hang (Intr.)</i>
lata	lèt	lét	late	<i>to let, permit</i>
laata	læt	let	laate	<i>to sound (Intr.)</i>

[In R. some of the foregoing have no ablaut; a few are **Weak**, and the others have gone over to other classes.]

§ 63. The following are irregular:—

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
døy	døyr	do§	daae§	<i>to die</i>
falla }	fell	fall	falle	<i>to fall, tumble</i>
fella }				
gøya	gøyr	go§	gaae§	<i>to bark, bay</i>
hevja	hev	hov§	hove§	<i>to heave, lift up</i>
hogga	høgg	hogg	hogge	<i>to hew, chop</i>
koma	kjem	kom	kome	<i>to come</i>
laupa	løyp	(laupte)	laupe§	<i>to run</i>
læ	lær	log	lætt	<i>to laugh</i>
sova	{ søv sev }	sov	sove	<i>to sleep</i>
standa }	stend }	stod	stade	<i>to stand</i>
staa }				
treda }	tred	trod	trade	<i>to tread, step</i>
traa }				
vega	veg	vog	vege	<i>to weigh (Tr.)</i>

Weak Verbs

§ 64. Weak verbs fall into three classes according to the formation of the Present and Imperfect tenses.

§ 65.

First Class

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
angra	angrar	angra	angra	<i>to repent, regret</i>

*Also fenge.

†Or ganga—gjeng—gjekk—gjenge.

‡Imper. haldt.

§Have also Weak forms:—døydde—døytt (daatt); gøydde or gde—døgøytt or gaatt; havde—havt; and laupt.

anna	annar	anna	anna	<i>to hurry, hasten</i>
baka	bakar	baka	baka	<i>to bake</i>
banna	bannar	banna	banna	<i>to ban, curse</i>
bræka	brækar	bræka	bræka	<i>to bleat</i>
grønka	grønkar	grønka	grønka	<i>to turn green</i>
hugsa	hugsar	hugsa	hugsa	<i>to remember</i>
kalla	kallar	kalla	kalla	<i>to call, name</i>
kasta	kastar	kasta	kasta	<i>to throw, fling</i>
koka	kokar	koka	koka	<i>to boil, cook</i>
leika	leikar	leika	leika	<i>to play</i>
lova	lovar	lova	lova	<i>to promise</i>
peika	peikar	peika	peika	<i>to point</i>
raudna	raudnar	raudna	raudna	<i>to redden, blush</i>
rita	ritar	rita	rita	<i>to draw, sketch</i>
ropa	ropar	ropa	ropa	<i>to shout</i>
sola	solar	sola	sola	<i>to sun</i>
studera	studerar	studera	studera	<i>to study</i>
svara	svarar	svara	svara	<i>to answer</i>
takka	takkar	takka	takka	<i>to thank</i>
tvila	tvilar	tvila	tvila	<i>to doubt</i>
vanta	vantar	vanta	vanta	<i>to want, lack</i>
veksla	vekslar	veksla	veksla	<i>to change (money)</i>

In this class are to be found most of the Weak verbs, particularly those whose stem ends in two consonants or a doubled consonant. Verbs of foreign origin in *era*, like *studera*, may be conjugated either according to this or the second class.

[The verbs of this class in R. take the Pres. in *-er*, and the Imperf. and Part. in *-et*.]

§ 66.

Second Class

Infinitive	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
brenna	brenner	brende	brent	<i>to burn, set on fire</i>
bu	bur	budde	butt	<i>to dwell, live</i>
byggja	byggjer	bygde	bygt	<i>to build</i>
døma	dømer	dømde	dømt	<i>to judge, condemn</i>
døy*	døyr	døydde	døytt	<i>to die</i>
flira	flirer	flirte	flirt	<i>to titter, chuckle</i>
føra	fører	førde†	ført	<i>to convey, carry</i>

*See § 63.

†Aasen gives *førte*.

gifta	gifter	gifte	gift	<i>to marry</i>
gjæta	gjæter	gjætte	gjætt	<i>to watch, guard</i>
gro	gror	grodde	grott	<i>to grow, sprout</i>
gøy*	gøyr	gøydde	gøytt	<i>to bark, bay</i>
hjelpa	hjelper	hjelpde	hjelp	<i>to help, rescue</i>
kjøpa	kjøper	kjøpte	kjøpt	<i>to buy</i>
klæda	klæder	klædde	klætt	<i>to dress, clothe</i>
leid	leider	leidde	leitt	<i>to lead, guide</i>
liva	lever	livde	livt	<i>to live</i>
lysa	lyser	lyste	lyst	<i>to dawn, be light</i>
naa	naar	naadde	naatt	<i>to reach, gain</i>
ro	ror	rodde	rott	<i>to row, scull</i>
røma	rømer	rømde	rømt	<i>to make room for</i>
saa	saar	saadde	saatt	<i>to sow</i>
senda	sender	sende	sent	<i>to send</i>
skjella	skjeller	skjelte	skjelt	<i>to peal, bray</i>
spenna	spenner	spente	spent	<i>to kick, spurn</i>
styrkja	styrker	styrkte	styrkt	<i>to strengthen</i>
sy	syr	sydde	sytt	<i>to sew</i>
tenkja	tenker	tenkte	tenkt	<i>to think</i>
tola	toler	tolde	tolt	<i>to endure, thole</i>
tru	trur	trudde	trutt	<i>to believe</i>

To this class belong—(1) verbs formed from substantives, adjectives, and from the Imperf. of Strong verbs; (2) verbs ending in *gja* and *kja*, except *bryggja to brew*, *eggja to incite*, *egg on*, *kneggja to neigh*, which belong to the first class of Weak verbs, and *leggja to lay*, *put*, which falls under the third; (3) and verbs which end with a root vowel.

Verbs of this class the stems of which end in one of the voiced consonants *d, g, m, v*, form the Imperf. in *-de*, while those ending in one of the voiceless consonants *k, p, t, s*, take *-te*. Stems in *l, n, r*, take *-de* as a rule in the Imperf., but a few have *-te*. Stems ending in a vowel take *-dde* in the Imperf. When the stem ends in *d* or *t* preceded by a consonant, the Imperf. takes no additional *-d* or *-t*.

[In R. most of the foregoing belong to the same class, but those whose stem ends in *d* take *-te* in the Imperf.; e.g., *sender—sendte*; *kjender—kjendte*.]

*See p. 42.

§ 67

Third Class

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
berja	ber	barde	bart	<i>to beat, strike</i>
bledja	bled	bladde	blat	<i>to choose, select</i>
dvelja	dvel	dvalde	dvalt	<i>to linger, tarry</i>
krevja	krev	kravde	kravt	<i>to demand, claim</i>
leggja	legg	la(gde)	lagt	<i>to put, lay</i>
semja	sem	samde	samt	<i>to reconcile, agree</i>
telja	tel	talde	talt	<i>to tell, relate</i>
temja	tem	tamde	tamt	<i>to tame, curb</i>
tenja	ten	tande	tant	<i>to stretch, extend</i>
velja	vel	valde	valt	<i>to choose, select</i>
venja	ven	vande	vant	<i>to accustom</i>
verja	ver	varde	vart	<i>to defend, protect</i>
byrja	býr (bør)	burde	burt	<i>to behoove, ought</i>
drysja	drýs	druste	drust	<i>to sprinkle</i>
dylja	dýl	dulde	dult	<i>to conceal</i>
dynja	dýn	dunde	dunt	<i>to boom, thunder</i>
flytja	flyt	flutte	flutt	<i>to move, flit</i>
grysja	grýs	grusde	grust	<i>to shudder</i>
rydja	rýd	rudde	rudt	<i>to clear, remove</i>
rynja	rýn	runde	runt	<i>to pour out (Intr.)</i>
rysja	rýs	rusde	rust	<i>to tremble</i>
smyrja	smýr	smurde	smurt	<i>to smear, grease</i>
spyrja	spør (spýr)	spurde	spurt	<i>to question, ask</i>
styðja	stýð	studde	studt	<i>to support, prop</i>
stynja	stýn	stunde	stunt	<i>to moan, groan</i>
symja	sým	sumde	sumt	<i>to swim</i>
yrja	ýr	urde	urt	<i>to swarm, teem</i>
gleda	gled	gledde	gledt	<i>to gladden</i>
gryppja	grýp	grypte	grypt	<i>to grind corn</i>
hylja	hýl	hylde	hylt	<i>to envelop, wrap up</i>
selja	sel	selde	selt	<i>to sell</i>
setja	set	sette	sett	<i>to set, place</i>
skilja	skil	skilde	skilt	<i>to separate, sever</i>
skylja	skýl	skylde	skylt	<i>to rinse, wash</i>
steda	sted	stedde	stedt	<i>to lease, hire</i>

[Most of the foregoing are similarly conjugated in R., but those which have a vowel-shift follow the second class.]

§ 68. The following are irregular, having the Pres. according to the second, and the Imperf. and Part. according to the third class.

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
gjera	gjer	gjorde	gjort	<i>to do, make</i>
rekka	rekker	rakte	rakt	<i>to stretch out</i>
segja	segjer	sa(gde)	sagt	<i>to say, speak</i>
tegja	tegjer	tagde	tagt	<i>to be silent</i>
tekkja	tekkjer	takte	takt	<i>to thatch, roof</i>
tykkja	tykkjer	totte*	tott	<i>to be of opinion</i>
vekkja	vekkjer	vakte*	vakt	<i>to awaken</i>

The following are also irregular:—

Infin.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
ausa	{ øys auser	auste	aust	<i>to bale, ladle</i>
eiga	eig	aatte	aatt	<i>to own, possess</i>
ha(va)	{ har hev	hadde	hagt	<i>to have</i>
kunna	kann	kunde	kunna	<i>to be able, can</i>
	maa	maatte	maatt	<i>may, must</i>
muna	mun	munde		<i>may, might</i>
skula	skal	skulde	skula	<i>shall, be obliged</i>
turva	tarv	turvte	turvte	<i>to need, want</i>
valda†	veld	volde	valde	<i>to cause, occasion</i>
vilja	vil	vilde	vilja	<i>to wish, will</i>
vita	veit	visste	vist	<i>to know, be aware</i>

Kunna, skula, turva, maa, muna, and vilja, are used as modal auxiliaries.

§ 69.

ACTIVE VOICE

Indicative Mood

Present Tense (*I seize, am seizing, do seize*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} grip	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei

*tykte—tykt, and vekte—vekt are also found.

†May also be regular:—valda—valdar—valda—valda.

Imperfect Tense (*I seized, was seizing, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} greip	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei

Perfect Tense (*I have seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} har (hev) gripe	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei

Pluperfect Tense (*I had seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} hadde gripe	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei

Future Tense (*I shall seize.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} skal (vil) gripa	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei

Future Perfect (*I shall have seized.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} skal ha } gripe	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
or		
eg	} faar gripe	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei

Conditional Mood

Imperfect Tense (*I should seize, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} skulde } gripe	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei

Pluperfect Tense (*I should (would) have seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} skulde } ha gripe	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei

<i>or</i>		
eg	}	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
		fekk gripe

Imperative Mood

Sing.	Pl.
grip!	gripe!

Infinitive Mood

Present:	aa gripa	<i>to seize</i>
Perfect:	aa ha gripe	<i>to have seized</i>
Future:	aa vilja gripa	<i>to be about to seize</i>

Participles

Present:	gripande	<i>seizing</i>
Past:	gripe	<i>seized</i>

§ 70

PASSIVE VOICE

*Indicative Mood*Present Tense (*I am seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	}	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
		vert gripne

Imperfect Tense (*I was seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	}	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
		vart gripne

Perfect Tense (*I have been seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	}	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
		er gripne

Pluperfect Tense (*I had been seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	}	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
		var gripne

Future Tense (*I shall be seized.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} skal (vil)	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
	F. gripi; N. gripe	

Future Perfect Tense (*I shall (will) have been seized*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} skal (vil) vera	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
	(vil ha vorte)	(vil ha vorte)
	gripen; (F. gripi; N. gripe.)	gripne

Conditional Mood

Imperfect Tense (*I should be seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} skulde (vilde)	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
	F. gripi; N. gripe	

Pluperfect Tense (*I should have been seized, etc.*)

Sing.		Pl.
eg	} skulde (vilde) vera	me
du		de
han, ho, det		dei
	(or vilde ha vorte)	(vilde ha vorte)
	gripen; (gripi; gripe)	gripne

Infinite Mood

Present	aa verta gripen (i—e—ne)	<i>to be seized</i>
Perfect:	aa vera gripen (i—e—ne)	<i>to have been seized</i>
Future:	aa vilja verta gripen (i—e—ne)	<i>to be about to be seized</i>

§ 71. Verbs of motion, such as *ganga to walk, go; fara to go, journey; koma to come*, and verbs expressive of transition from one state to another, as *vakna to awake, braana to melt*, may take either *vera* or *ha* as auxiliary, but when the former is used the Part., if of a strong verb, is inflected for both gender and number; see § 35; e.g., *han er faren, or har fare; ho er fari, or har fare; barnet er fare, or har fare; dei er farne, or har fare.*

§ 72. The usual mark of the Infinitive—*aa*—[R. at] is omitted:—(1) after the modal auxiliaries (see § 68); e.g., *han maa gjera det*

he must do it; (2) after another infinitive, or after an adjective ending in *a*; e.g., *eg vil læra skriva, I wish to learn writing*; (3) after many of the Reflexive verbs ending in *-st* (see § 74); e.g., *ho timest ikkje gjera nokon ting she is not inclined to do anything*; and (4) after the following verbs,—*bella to endure, faa to receive, get, greida to manage, keep in order, herda to harden, lata to let, permit, ljota may, must, lysta to like to, magta to be able to, orka to be able to, tola to endure, tora to dare, venture, trenga to need, require, trøysta to venture, vinna to win, attain.*

§ 73. The Passive Voice is but seldom used, but if need be the passive signification may be expressed by the use of the auxiliaries *vera* and *verta* (see § 70). The so-called Reflexive form of the verb (see § 74) has often a passive meaning.

§ 74. The Reflexive verb is formed by adding *-st* (the ON. reflexive pronoun *sik*) to the various forms of the Active Voice; e.g.—

Inf.	Pres.	Imperf.	Part.	
finnast	finst	fanst	funnest	<i>to be found, to be met with, to meet one another</i>
rivast	rivst	reivst	rivest	<i>to be broken, to try one's strength against another's</i>
kjennast	kjennest	kjendest	kjenst	<i>to know each other, to be recognized</i>
skjem- mast	skjem- mest	skjem- dest	skjemst	<i>to be ashamed</i>
ottast	ottast	ottast	ottast	<i>to be alarmed</i>

This Reflexive form cannot be used with all verbs.

[In R. the Reflexive ending has been weakened to *-s*, and the majority of the verbs thus inflected have a passive meaning; some, however, have a reflexive signification, and others a reciprocal.]

ADVERBS

§ 75. As a rule the neuters of adjectives may be used as adverbs, and like adjectives may be compared (see §§ 38-43).

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
breidt <i>broadly</i>	breidare	breidast
gløgt <i>cleverly</i>	gløggare	gløggast

nytt <i>newly</i>	nyare	nyast
rikt <i>richly</i>	rikare	rikast
ofte <i>frequently</i>	oftare	oftast

Some take -(e)r in the comparative and -st in the superlative:—

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
lenge } <i>long</i>	lenger }	lengst }
langt }		
stort <i>largely</i>	større	størst
høgt <i>highly</i>	høgre	høgst
tungst <i>heavily</i>	tyngre	tyngst

Adverbs corresponding to the irregularly compared adjectives are similarly compared:—

Pos.	Comp.	Sup.
godt (vel) <i>well</i>	betre	best
lite <i>little</i>	minder	minst
mykje <i>much</i>	meir	mest
vondt <i>badly</i>	verre	verst

§ 76. Adverbs of time:—

alltid <i>always</i>	i dag <i>to-day</i>
aldri <i>never</i>	i gaar <i>yesterday</i>
allstødt <i>constantly</i>	i morgon <i>to-morrow</i>
atter <i>again</i>	i natt <i>to-night</i>
da <i>then</i>	snart <i>quickly</i>
ein gong <i>once</i>	straks <i>immediately</i>
no <i>now</i>	stundom <i>at times</i>
fordom <i>formerly</i>	ofte <i>often</i>
fyre <i>before</i>	

Adverbs of place:—

allstads <i>everywhere</i>	kvar <i>where</i>
der <i>there</i>	langt <i>far</i>
fram <i>forward</i>	ned <i>down</i>
framma-paa <i>in front</i>	nær <i>near</i>
heim <i>at home</i>	til atters <i>back</i>
her <i>here</i>	upp <i>up</i>
imillom <i>between</i>	ute <i>outside</i>
inne <i>inside</i>	

Adverbs of manner and degree:—

altfor <i>too</i>	kor <i>how</i>
annarleis <i>otherwise</i>	nok <i>enough</i>

berre <i>only</i>	nokolunde <i>partly</i>
daarleg <i>poorly</i>	so <i>so</i>
fort <i>quickly</i>	soleis <i>thus</i>
gjerne <i>willingly</i>	somaata <i>so far</i>
ingeleides <i>by no means</i>	svært <i>very, exceedingly</i>

Adverbs of cause and consequence:—

difor <i>therefore</i>	fylgjeleg <i>consequently</i>
------------------------	-------------------------------

Adverbs of affirmation and negation:—

ikkje <i>no, not</i>	nei <i>no, nay</i>
ja <i>yes, yea</i>	til vissa <i>certainly</i>
langt ifraa <i>far from it</i>	visst <i>surely</i>

§ 77.

PREPOSITIONS

aat <i>to, towards</i>
av <i>of, by</i>
etter <i>after</i>
for <i>for, to</i>
fyre <i>before</i>
fraa <i>from</i>
gjenom <i>through</i>
hjaa <i>by, with, at the house of</i>
i <i>in, into, at</i>
med <i>with, by</i>
millom <i>between, among</i>
mot <i>against, towards</i>
or <i>out of</i>
paa <i>on, upon</i>
til <i>to, till</i>
um <i>about, of</i>
under <i>under, below, during</i>
utan <i>without, except</i>
ved <i>by, with</i>
yver <i>over, above</i>

§ 78. In certain dialects the Dative case is still preserved after—aat, av, fraa, hjaa, mot, or; while etter, for, fyre, i, med, paa, ved, under, yver take Dative or Accusative according as they express rest in or motion towards a place. In ON. til and millom governed the Genitive, and traces of this are preserved in such expressions as,—til kvelds *at evening*, til dømes *for instance*, til stadar *at hand*, manne millom *between men*.

§ 79.

CONJUNCTIONS

Co-ordinating:—

og *and, also*
 baade—og *both—and*
 eller *or*
 korkje—eller *neither—nor*
 anten—eller *either—or*
 men *but*
 for *because, for*
 enn *and, but*

Subordinating:—

at *that*
 daa *since, when, seeing that*
 endaa *though, although*
 fordi *because*
 innan *before*
 medan *while, whilst*
 naar *when*
 so framt *provided that, in case that*
 um *if, whether*
 annast *before*
 ifall *in case, if*
 sidan *since*
 so so *that, so*
 som *as, just as*

§ 80. Enn has the sense of *and* in such questions as:—eg har tapt alt. Enn du? *I have lost everything. And you?* Its original force was that of men *but*.

NOTES ON SYNTAX

§ 81. The order of words in L. is, in the main, the same as that which obtains in R.—subject, predicate, indirect object, direct object;—e.g., han gav hesten mat *he gave the horse food*. It differs from R. in the placing of the Possessive Pronouns—min, din, sin, vaar—after the object possessed instead of before it, and in the separation of the preposition from the verb in compound verbs; e.g., huset mitt (not mitt hus) *my house* ho las upp (not upplas) brevet *she read out the letter* han gav upp (not uppgav) det han var byrja med *he abandoned what he had*

begun. As in R., when the subject does not begin the sentence, inversion takes place; e.g., *no visste me vel at me kunde ikkje venta now we well knew that we could not wait.*

§ 82. In sentence construction the distinctive feature of L. is the avoidance of long periods, with a string of dependent clauses. It prefers the use of coordinate main sentences, as will be seen by reference to the prose pieces given in Part III.

§ 83. In choice of words L. naturally avoids as far as possible the use of loanwords, more especially those of German or Danish origin; e.g., *bruka* is used instead of *anvende*, *krav* instead of *fordring*, *lov* or *samtykke* instead of *tilladelse*, *faa* instead of *erholde*, and so forth. Words of foreign origin, universally accepted, such as *telegraf*, *automobil*, are admitted; but when a purely Norse word is available it is preferred.

SELECTIONS IN NEW NORSE

HAN FAR SJØLV I STUA

Det var ein gong ein mann som budde burt i ein skog. Han hadde so mange sauer og geiter, men aldri kunde han hava deim i fred for graabeinen. "Eg skal vel lura den graatassen," sa han til slutt, og gav seg til aa grava ei vargstøva. Daa han hadde grave djupt nok, sette han ein stolpe midt ned i vargstøva, og paa den stolpen slo han ei skiva, og paa den skiva sette han ein liten hund, og ut yver grefti la han kvister og bar og anna rusk, og ovanpaa det straadde han snø, so tassen skulde ikkje sjaa det var ei greft under.

Daa det leid fram paa natti, vart den vesle hunden leid av aa staa der. "Vov, vov, vov!" sa han, og gøydde mot mannen. So kom det ein røv lakkande og lakkande, og tenkte han rett skulde gjera marknad, og so gjorde han eit hopp—lukt ned i vargstøva.

Daa det leid noko lenger ut paa natti, so vart den vesle hunden so leid og svolten, og so tok han paa aa gøy og gneldra. "Vov, vov, vov!" sa han. Rett som det var kom det ein graabein taslande og taslande; han tenkte nok han skulde nappa seg ei feit steik, og so gjorde han eit byks—beint ned i vargstøva.

Daa det leid fram til graalysingi um morgonen, kom nordan-snoen, og det var so kaldt so den vesle hunden stod og fraus og skalv, og so vart han so trøytt og svolten. "Vov, vov, vov, vov!" sa han, og gøydde og gøydde. So kom det ein bjørn labbande og labbande burtetter, og hufsa paa seg, og tenkte han skulde nok faa seg ein godbite paa morgonkvisten; dermed hufsa han seg ut paa kvisterne—bums ned i vargstøva.

Daa det leid noko lenger ut paa morgonen, kom det raklande ei gamall fantekjerring, som slang gardemillom med ein pøse paa ryggen. Daa ho vart vår den vesle hunden, som stod der og gøydde, laut ho burtaat aa sjaa, um det var kome dyr i vargstøva um natti. Ja, ho la seg paa kne og kika nedi.

"Er du komen i fella no, Mikkell?" sa ho til reven, for honom saag ho fyrst; "alt eitt aat deg, din hønsetjuv! Du og graatass?" sa ho til graabeinen; "hev du rive geit og sau, so vert du no pint og peisa daud! Eia meg daa, bamse, sit du med der i støva, din

merraflaaar? Ja deg skal me rispa, og deg skal me flaa, og skallen din skal me paa buveggen slaa!” skreik kjerringi so det gnall, of hytta til bjørnen. Men med same rulla pøsen fram yver høvudet paa henne, og kjerringi rauk—stufs ned i vargstøva.

So sat dei der og glodde paa kvarandre alle fire, kvar i sin krok: reven i den eine, graabeinen i den andre, bjørnen i den tridje, og kjerringi i den fjerde kraai.

Men daa det var all-ljost, tok Mikkell aat aa rista paa seg og svifta ikring, for han tenkte vel han skulde freista koma ut. Men daa sa kjerringi: “Kann du ikkje sitja still du daa, di sviverova, og ikkje fara soleis og svinsa og svansa! Sjaa berre paa han far sjølv i stua, han sit so stød som ein prest!” sa ho; for no tenkte ho, at ho skulde prøva gjera seg godvener med bjørnen.

Men so kom mannen som aatte vargstøva. Fyrst drog han upp kjerringi, og so slo han i hæl alle dyri, og han sparde korkje han far sjølv i stua eller tassen eller Mikkell sviverova. Den natti tykte han han hadde gjort eit godt kast.

Asbjørnsen: *Folke-Eventyr*. Translated into Landsmaal by R. Flo.

LEIF DISCOVERS VINLAND

Eirik var gift med ei som het Tjodhild, og hadde med henne tvo søner; ein het Torstein, den andre Leiv. Dei var baae emnelege menn. Torstein var heime hjaa får sin, og det var ingen paa heile Grønland som saag so mannsleg ut som han. Leiv hadde siglt til Norig, og der var han hjaa kong Olav Tryggveson. Daa han fór fraa Grønland um sumaren, hadde han stor sjø like til Sudrøyarne. Derifraa vart det seint bør, og dei heldt seg daa lenge der utyver sumaren. Leiv la hug til eit kvende som het Torgunna; ho var ei ættstor kvinna. Leiv skyna at ho kunde meir en folk flest. Daa han siglde burt, bad Torgunna um aa faa vera med honom. Leiv spurde um folket hennar vilde samtykkja i det. Ho svara at ho fór ikkje etter det, ho. Leiv sa at han kunde ikkje hertaka slik ei storætta kvinna i framandt land, so faament som han var. Torgunna svara: “Ikkje er det difor sagt du skal tykkja du hev valt beste raadi.” “Eg hev sjølv vaagnaden,” segjer Leiv. “Daa segjer eg deg,” sa Torgunna, “at eg gjeng ikkje eismall; for eg er med barn, og det skuldar eg deg paa. Eg git òg paa det, at eg kjem til aa føda ein gut, naar so langt lid. Og um du ikkje bryr deg um det, so vil eg fostra guten upp, og senda

honom til Grønland aat deg, fyrst han kann fara med andre menn. Men eg spaar at du vil koma til aa faa nytta av aa eiga son saman med meg etter som skilnaden vaar vert til. Eg etlar meg òg til Grønland fyrr eg døyr.” Leiv gav henne ei grønlendsk kapp og gullring og eit tannbelte. Sonen som Torgunna fekk, kom til Grønland, og nennde seg Torgils. Leiv tok imot honom og sonkjende honom, og sume segjer at denne Torgils kom til Island sumaren fyre Frodaaunderi. Men sidan var han paa Grønland, og eitkvart trolskap tyktest fylgja honom so lenge han livde. Leiv og hans fylgje siglde fraa Sudrøyarne og kom til Norig um hausten. Leiv kom seg inn i hirdi hjaa kong Olav Tryggveson. Kongen synte honom stor vyrdnad, og tyktest skýna at Leiv var ein mann som det var tak i. Ein gong kom kongen i tale med Leiv og spurde honom: “Tenkjer du aa sigla til Grønland i sumar?” Leiv svarar: “Det gjer eg, um det er so Dykkar vilje.” Kongen segjer: “Eg trur det vil vera godt. Du skal fara i mi ærend og bjoda kristendomen paa Grønland.” Leiv sa at kongen fekk raada; men han meinte det vilde vera ei vand ærend aa fullføra. Kongen svara at han visste ikkje av nokon som skulde vera betre fallen til det enn han, “og du vil ha gjæva med deg til dette.” “Det lyt einast vera paa det aa lita, at eg nyt godt av Dykkar gjæva,” sa Leiv. So let han i hav, fyrst han var reidug. Han dreiv lenge ikring ute, og han kom yver slike land som han aldri fyrr hadde visst um. Der var sjølvsaadde kveiteaakrar og vaksne vintré; der var òg slike tré som heiter masur, og dei tok med seg nokre prøvor av kvart slag; sume tré var so store at det var bygningsvyrke i deim. Leiv fann nokon menner paa eit skipsflak; han tok deim heim med seg, og hyste deim um vinteren. Han synte soleis mykje baade storlynde og godleik: han kom med kristendomen til landet, og han berga mennerne; han vart kalla Leiv den hepne. Leive lende i Eiriks fjord og fór heim til Brattalid.

Soga um Eirik Raude: translated from ON. by S. Eskeland.

SIGURD SLAYS THE DRAGON

No rid Sigurd ut paa heidi, men Regin kverv burt øgjeleg rædd. Sigurd gjer ei grøv. Og medan han er i ferd med dette arbeidet, kjem det ein gamall mann med sidt skjegg til honom, og spør kva han gjer der. Han segjer det. Daa svarar den gamle mannen: “Dette er uraad. Gjer fleire grøver, og lat blodet renna

ned i der, men sit du i den eine og legg til ormen i hjarta!” So kverv mannen burt. Men Sigurd gjer grover, etter det som er fyresagt.

Og daa ormen skreid til vatns, vart det so fæl ein jordskjelv, at all jordi skalv i nærleiken. Han fnøste eiter framfyre seg heile vegen. Men inkje rædde seg Sigurd eller ottast for den gnyen. Og med same ormen skreid yver grøvi, daa køyrdde Sigurd sverdet inn under vinstre bogen, so det sokk i til handtaket. Daa sprang han upp or grøvi og kipte til seg sverdet, og hadde blodga henderne alt upp til akslerne. Og daa den store ormen kjende banesaaret sitt, daa slo han med hovudet og sporden so at alt brast i sund, som fyre barst. Og daa Faavne fekk banesaar, spurde han: “Kven er du, og kven er får din, og kva ætt er du av, du som vart so djerv at du torde bera vaapen paa meg?” Sigurd svarar: “Ætti mi er ukjend for alle. Eg heiter ‘gjævt dyr.’ Eg eig inkje får eller môr, og einsamen hev eg fare.” Faavne svarar: “Eig du inkje får eller môr, kva under er du daa alen av? Og um du inkje segjer meg namnet ditt paa banedagen min, so veit du at du lyg no.” Han svarar: “Eg heiter Sigurd, og får min Sigmund.” Faavne segjer: “Kven eggja deg til dette verket, og kvi let du deg eggja? Hadde du inkje frett det, kor rædde alle folk er meg og øgjeshjelm min? Du bjartøygde svein, du hadde ein djerv får.” Sigurd svarar: “Min harde hug eggja meg til dette, og denne sterke hondi og dette kvasse sverdet som du no kjenner, studde til so det vart gjort. Og sjeldan vert gamall mann hard, um han er blaut i barndomen.” . . . Framleides mæler Faavne: “Eg bar øgjeshjelm mot alt folket, sidan eg laag paa bror mins arv. Og eg fnøste so med eiter fraa meg i alle leider, at ingen torde koma name nær meg. Og ingi vaapen rædde seg, og aldri fann eg so mange mann fyre meg, at eg ikkje tottest mykje sterkare. Men alle var rædde meg.” Sigurd segjer: “Den øgjeshjelm som du talar um, gjev faa siger. For kvar den som kjem saman med mange, fær ei gong finna det, at ingen er den einaste kvate.” Faavne svarar: “Det raader eg deg til, at du tek hesten din og rid burt som skjotast, for det hender ofte at den som fær banesaar hemner seg sjølv.” Sigurd segjer: “Dette er dine raad; men anna vil eg gjera. Eg vil rida til bolet ditt og taka der alt det gullet som frendarne dine hev aatt.” Faavne svarar: “Rid du dit, og der finn du so mykje gull at det

er ute med dagarne dine. For det sa ie gullet vert din bane, og kvar manns bane som eig det." Sigurd stend upp og segjer: "Heim vilde eg rida, endaa um eg miste denne store rikdomen, so sant eg visste at eg aldri skulde døy. Men kvar fræg mann vil raada for gods til den siste dagen. Men du Faavne, ligg du i andlaatom til Hel hentar deg!" Og so døyir Faavne.

Soga um Volsungarne: translated from ON. by Torleiv Hannaas.

GAMLE MÔR

Du gamle môr! du sliter arm,
so sveiten er som blod,
men endaa i ditt hjarta varm.
Og du meg gav min sterke arm,
og dette ville mod.

Du turka taaror av mi kinn
so mang ein herrens gong,
og kysste meg som guten din,
og blés meg uti barmen inn
min sigerfulle song.

Og gamle du, du gav til meg
mi mjuke hjarterot,
og difor maa eg elska deg,
kvarhelst eg vankar paa min veg,
um so paa villan fot.

Aasmund Vinje.

DEI VIL ALTID KLAGA OG KYTA

Dei vil altid klaga og kyta,
at me ganga so seint og so smaatt;
men eg tenkjer, dei tarv ikkje syta:
me skal koma um ikkje so braadt.

Ja, det skyt ikkje fram, so det dunar,
som no ingen kan undrast uppaa;
men det munar daa jamt, ja det munar,
so det stundom er hugnad aa sjaa.

Lat det ganga fram, lat det siga!
Berre eit eg ynskjer og bed:

at me ikkje saa høgt maatte stiga,
at me gløyma vaar fedra-sed.

Lat oss ikkje forfederne gløyma,
under alt, som me venda og snu,
for dei gav oss en arv til aa gjøyma,
han er større, en mange vil tru.

Lat det merkast i meir en i ordi,
at me halda den arven istand,
at, naar federne sjaa att paa jordi,
dei kan kjenna sitt folk og sitt land.

Ivar Aasen.

GUD SIGNE VAART DYRE FEDRALAND

Gud signe vaart dyre fedraland;
og lat det som hagen bløma!
lat lysa din fred fraa fjell til strand,
og vetter fyr vaarsol røma!
Lat folket som brøder saman bu,
som kristne det kann seg søma.

Vaart heimland i myrker lenge laag,
og vankunna ljøset gøymde.
Men Gud, du i naade til oss saag,
din kjærleik oss ikkje gløymde:
du sende ditt ord til Norigs fjell,
og ljøs yver landet strøymde.

Og Norig det ligg vel langt i nord,
og vetteren varer lenge;
men ljøset og livet i ditt ord
det ingen kann setja stenge.
Um fjellet er høgt og dalen trong,
ditt ord heve daa sitt gjenge.

Og morgonen rann, og myrkret kvarv,
som lenge vaar lukka skygde.
Du atter oss gav vaar fridoms arv,
og honom i trengsla trygde.
Du vernad vaart folk og gav oss fred,
og landet med log me bygde.

No er det i Norig atter dag,
 med vaarsol og song i skogen.
 Um sædet enn gror paa ymist lag,
 det brydder daa ettner plogen.
 So signe daa Gud det gode saad,
 til groren ein gong er mogen!

E. Blix.

SKOG — GLAD

Aa stakars vesle hare
 so fin og silkeklædd,
 Gud veit kor du hev fare,
 med di du er so rædd!
 Du spretter og du skvetter
 so hovdelaus ikring;
 kva er du renner etter
 og snøgg i hòl deg sting,
 arme ting?

Her er so god ein sumar
 med hus i kvar ein busk,
 og lauv og friske kumar
 aat slik ein liten trusk.
 No skal me vera kvate
 i slik ei solskinsstund,
 no skal me vera late
 og taka oss i lund
 lette blund.

Du er so brun og lekker
 i sumarkjolen din,
 d'er berre du for klekk er
 til vera guten min.
 Men vil du glad meg gjera,
 so hoppa her i lid,
 og vener skal me vera
 og vener skal me bli,
 all vaar tid.

Arne Garborg.

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II

To give a complete list of works in Landsmaal in its authorised, or any divergent, form would serve but little purpose. Mention, however, should be made of the works of such writers as. Aasmund Vinje, Arne Garborg, Anders Hovden, Ivar Mortensson, Kristofer Janson, John Lie, Rasmus Løland, Sven Moren, Sigurd Nesse, Hans Seland, Per Sivle, Jens Tvedt, Vetle Vislie, and Olav Duun. Det norske samlaget issues much Landsmaal literature of a miscellaneous nature, of which its New Norse translations of the sagas may be specially noted.